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THE LIBRARY QUARTERLY

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THE LIBRARY QUARTERLY

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CIVIL SERVICE IN PUBLIC LIBRARIES¹

HERBERT GOLDHOR

INTRODUCTION

THIS is a report of the results of an investigation undertaken to evaluate the effects of the application of civil service on the practices used in the selection of employees for public libraries. Based on information collected by field visits early in 1942, the method used was to compare the personnel policies and practices, in the years 1937-41, of six public libraries in cities of over two hundred thousand population—three under civil service and three not under civil service. These cities were selected, with the help of three experts in librarianship, as being above the average of the group from which they were drawn in the quality of their general internal administration: Los Angeles, Oakland, and St. Paul of the civil service group; and Detroit, Portland, and Providence of the non-civil service group.

The criteria for evaluation were supplied by twenty principles of public personnel administration, formulated in the light of the concept of a career service in government. The area of employee selec-

tion alone was considered, with special emphasis on the selection of junior librarians, who occupy the basic class of the professional service and the most important class in the development of a career service. The findings are presented according to six major topics under which the principles naturally group themselves.

This study attempts to measure the degree to which the standard practices of employee selection are used by the three civil service libraries as compared with their use by the three comparable non-civil service libraries. It answers the question "Do civil service or non-civil service libraries have better employees?" only to the extent that one is prepared to assume that the approved principles of public personnel administration secure "better" employees. Specifically, the question to which this study was addressed may be stated thus: In the light of experience has civil service helped or hindered public libraries in the use of the policies and practices of modern personnel administration that are considered essential to a career service?²

Two terms require definition. A "civil

¹ The essential portion of a dissertation submitted to the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago in September, 1942, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

² For a detailed statement of the problem and a description of the methodology used see Herbert Goldhor, "The Selection of Employees in Large

service library" is one that is required by law to fill vacancies on its staff by the appointment of persons selected through competitive examinations administered by a governmental agency independent of the library. A "career service" is here taken to mean (1) that young people of the highest obtainable qualifications are induced to enter the service of an institution; (2) that provision is made for assurance of tenure and good working conditions, coupled with the fullest opportunities for promotion; and (3) that there is no discrimination on grounds unrelated to merit.

ORGANIZATION FOR PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION

The first important subdivision of the field of employee selection—one that is relevant to the study of any area of personnel administration—concerns the general plan for the organization of personnel administration in the institution. Desirable features of such organization are: (1) There should be definite and adequate provision for personnel administration, with a qualified individual in charge. (2) An officially approved statement of the library's personnel policy should be made available to employees. (3) Staff turnover should be neither very high nor very low.

Provision for personnel administration.

—The legal and ultimate responsibility for personnel administration in both the civil service and the non-civil service libraries is lodged in the hands of the board of trustees or other governing authority. Usually the delegation to the chief librarian of the immediate responsibility for this function of administration is made explicitly; in St. Paul and Providence,

however, it is made only implicitly. In most cases, too, the chief librarian himself handles personnel administration. In Los Angeles the assistant city librarian is in charge of branches and, subject to the control of the city librarian, of personnel administration for the whole system. In the Detroit Public Library the chief librarian is assisted by a full-time personnel officer who has the rank of department head and is one of very few such officers in American libraries.

From each of the six institutions an estimate was secured of the amount of time and money devoted to personnel administration. These estimates are based on incomplete data and justify only very general conclusions. The amount of time spent on personnel administration in these libraries ranges from half-time of one person to full time of three, but the monetary equivalent is almost uniformly a little more than 1 per cent of the total library pay roll. When the expenditures of the civil service commissions are added to these library expenditures, it is found that more than twice as much money is being spent on personnel administration per employee in the civil service libraries as in the non-civil service libraries; but it is probable that the machinery and routines of civil service account for the difference. The civil service and non-civil service libraries themselves, however, give approximately the same degree of attention to personnel administration.

Similarly, there is no consistent difference in the qualifications of the individuals in these libraries to whom personnel administration is assigned. None of them had any formal training or special experience in this field before assuming their duties, though all have had years of administrative experience in libraries. No annual reports on personnel administra-

Civil Service and Non-Civil Service Public Libraries" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Graduate Library School, University of Chicago, 1942).

tion were prepared in the last five years in any of the libraries investigated; in none have any studies of personnel administration been undertaken. All in all, the single most important fact that stands out in this section is the existence of a full-time personnel officer in the Detroit Public Library, a non-civil service institution.

Statement of personnel policy.—The necessity for a statement of the library's personnel policies seems to have been more generally recognized by the non-civil service libraries in this study than by the civil service libraries. The latter tend to rely on the rules of their respective civil service commissions. Such rules, however, are not always readily available; they need to be "translated," furthermore, so that library employees may grasp their significance; and, finally, they cover only a part of the total area of personnel administration. Only in the Oakland Public Library, of the three civil service libraries, has a recent statement of personnel policy appeared.

All three of the non-civil service libraries, on the other hand, have issued such statements of policy since 1939. Of these, Portland's "Staff Manual" is the best. Generally these documents are not distributed individually to new employees but are made available in every branch or department. Generally, too, there is no definite provision for future revision of the statement. Measured by what might be done in this direction, public libraries can be said to have failed to give the matter the attention it deserves. Measured by actual practice, it is clear that the practices of the non-civil service libraries in the study are superior to those of the civil service institutions.

Staff turnover.—By staff turnover is meant the ratio of the number of separations occurring in a year to the total number of positions at the end of the year. A high rate of turnover indicates that staff members are not being employed on a long-term or career basis, while a low turnover may indicate stagnancy. Though the absence of comparable data for all but a few other libraries makes it difficult to establish norms, from the point of view of a career service in librarianship it is reasonable to consider 15 per cent the optimum rate of turnover.

None of the six libraries in this study has formulated a policy on staff turnover, and none has systematically collected or analyzed the basic data. Some of these figures for the years 1937-41 were compiled in the course of this study but are probably not strictly comparable or altogether reliable. The turnover of non-professional employees is found to deviate widely from the suggested optimum of 15 per cent in almost every case, and it usually exceeds 25 per cent, though in some cases it approaches zero for building-service employees. In general, the civil service libraries have higher rates of turnover for nonprofessional employees than do the non-civil service libraries.

Among the professional staff the rate of turnover of junior librarians in all three non-civil service institutions is close to the optimum; this is true of only one of the civil service libraries, Los Angeles. The rate of turnover of the other professional employees, furthermore, is undesirably low in all cases, though it is lower in the civil service libraries than in the non-civil service libraries. There is no evidence to indicate that these turnover rates are the results of a purposive policy, but the actual figures indicate that the record of the non-civil service libraries is more nearly

¹ Library Association of Portland, "Staff Manual" (Portland: Library Association of Portland, 1941). (Mimeographed.)

in accord with approved practice than is that of the civil service libraries.

Summary.—In regard to the three main aspects of over-all organization for personnel administration that have been discussed here, it is seen that the practices of the non-civil service libraries are more in accord with the principles of public personnel administration than are those of the civil service institutions. The outstanding fact in the provision for personnel administration is the existence of a full-time personnel officer in the Detroit Public Library. Recently prepared statements of personnel policy are found in all three non-civil service libraries. Finally, the non-civil service libraries have staff turnover rates that more nearly approach the optimum than do those of the civil service libraries.

POSITION CLASSIFICATION

Just as the nature of the organization for personnel administration in an institution is necessary to an understanding of the selection policies used, so the existence of an adequate position classification plan is fundamental to the operation of those policies. Briefly, such a plan groups together in classes those positions in a library that involve duties of comparable difficulty and complexity and responsibilities of comparable weight. Experience has shown that the three most important considerations concerning position classification plans are: (1) the existence, scope, and basis of the plan; (2) the arrangement of the plan; and (3) the current administration of the plan.

Existence of the plan.—The three civil service libraries in this study have position classification plans which, in each case, are a part of the official city-wide plans of their respective civil service commissions. All positions in these li-

braries are included in the plans, save that of librarian in the St. Paul Public Library and part-time positions in Los Angeles paying less than fifty dollars a month. The Los Angeles plan was completely revised in 1940. The position classification plan for the Oakland Public Library dates back to 1934 and that of St. Paul to 1932. The Los Angeles and Oakland plans were based on job-description questionnaires filled out by the employees.

Of the non-civil service libraries, Portland and Providence do not have position classification plans. They both have pay plans for certain groups of employees, which are necessarily based on a classification of positions; but in neither case was the classification determined by a factual survey of the duties of those positions. The Detroit Public Library was included in the Civil Service Commission's 1935 position classification plan for the whole city, and job-description questionnaires were secured for all positions in the library. The library authorities, however, were allowed to specify the classes they wished and to establish salary rates for them independently of those used for other classes in the city service.

Arrangement of the plan.—One major test of the adequacy of a position classification plan relates to its arrangement, i.e., (1) the grouping into classes of positions sufficiently comparable that the same qualifications can be demanded, the same tests of selection used, and the same salary scale applied to them all; (2) the preparation of written specifications for each such class; and (3) the arrangement of classes so as to differentiate between professional and clerical work and to provide a career service for each.

Examination of the position classification plans of these libraries and the inter-

views with library officers and employees indicate that the allocation of positions to the main classes is satisfactory in Los Angeles and in Oakland. In both St. Paul and Detroit, however, the two basic classes of the professional service are not clearly differentiated. In Portland and Providence the classification used is known to be based, at least in part, on considerations other than the duties and responsibilities involved.

Class specifications are found in the plans of all three civil service libraries. They are lacking in Portland and Providence; and, though they occur in the Detroit plan, they were prepared by the Civil Service Commission but were never reviewed or approved by the library authorities and are known to include some factual errors.

One of the chief values of a position classification plan to a library, other than as the basis of the salary schedule, is to reveal the assignment of clerical duties to professionally qualified employees, and vice versa. In Los Angeles, Oakland, and Detroit the distinction between professional and clerical work is reasonably well observed; in Portland, and especially in Providence and St. Paul, this distinction is less clear. In none of these six libraries, however, is adequate provision made for a career service for clerical employees, despite conclusive evidence that the major portion of the work done in libraries is clerical in nature.

Current administration of the plan.—A second major test of the adequacy of a position classification plan is found in the current administration of the plan. A fundamental principle of position classification is that the classification plan does not limit the discretion of the administrator in changing the assignment of duties that constitute positions. When such changes are made, however, they should

result in a reclassification of the positions in question if the principle of equal pay for equal work is to be observed. A classification plan should be kept up to date (1) by the reclassification of individual positions when their duties are changed and (2) by a periodic review of the whole classification plan in order to determine the correctness of the allocation of individual positions and of the grouping of positions into classes.

The civil service commissions of Los Angeles and Oakland require that changes in duties be reported to them by the department heads. About a half-dozen positions have been reclassified since 1940 in Los Angeles, but no individual positions have been reclassified in Oakland or in St. Paul in the years 1937-41. A classification audit to determine the correctness of the allocation of existing positions was made of clerical employees in Los Angeles in 1941; the Oakland Civil Service Board is conducting a permanent, continuous reclassification survey of the city government, department by department, and the library's turn will come soon; and in St. Paul the classification plan was last reviewed in its entirety in 1932. As far as the investigator was able to learn, there is no serious abuse of out-of-grade⁴ assignments in Los Angeles or Oakland, but many library employees in St. Paul are given long-continued assignments to duties in advance of those for which they were selected and are being paid.

Current administration of position classification is nonsystematic in Port-

⁴ An employee is said to be working out-of-grade when his duties have been so changed that they are no longer those of the class to which his position was originally allocated but more nearly resemble those of a class in a higher or lower grade. If the two classes carry different salary schedules, the result is that unequal pay is being given for the same work. Thus, a junior librarian assigned the duties of a department head would be working out-of-grade.

land and entirely lacking in Providence. The Detroit Public Library authorities, however, have secured approval of the Budget Bureau and Common Council of the reclassification of a dozen positions since 1937—the best record of any library in this study. At the same time, a 1940 survey by a special city-wide classification committee recommended changes for about thirty library positions. No indication was found of any serious abuse in the assignment of employees to work out-of-grade in Portland or in Detroit, but it is probable that the principle of equal pay for equal work is not always observed in Providence.

Summary.—Not all public libraries under civil service have adequate position classification plans; but, typically, when civil service is applied to a public library, it involves the introduction of an official position classification plan as determined by a work analysis and covering all positions in the library. On the other hand, most non-civil service public libraries have failed to develop adequate classification plans, in part, at least, because of the natural tendency to ignore the plan under the stress of circumstances. In general, the civil service libraries in this study are superior to the non-civil service libraries in their observance of the principles in this section.

QUALIFICATIONS

The first important step in the actual selection of an employee is the determination of the qualifications considered necessary for the position to be filled. Four major factors were considered in this study: residence, disqualification on grounds unrelated to merit, age, and education and experience.

Residence.—Local residence has long been a qualification for government employment in this country, and both civil

service and non-civil service libraries tend to fill their nonprofessional positions by the appointment of persons living in the immediate area. The local-residence qualification, however, constitutes a serious impediment to the development of a career service, especially when it is applied to the filling of positions requiring professional or specialized training and experience.

The civil service residence requirement is one year in Los Angeles, four years in Oakland, and six months in St. Paul. This requirement was waived for all examinations for professional positions in the Los Angeles Public Library between 1937 and 1941. The Oakland requirement was reduced to one year's residence in the county for the 1937 examination for junior librarian and to one year's residence in the state for the 1939 and 1941 examinations. The St. Paul residence requirement was waived only once for a library position in the years 1937-41. In these cities, as is almost always true of civil service jurisdictions, the residence restriction is imposed by law. Though the commission is usually empowered to waive this qualification, this means little, since arrangements are not often made for candidates to take the complete examination in other cities; the effective geographic range of selection available to these civil service libraries is thus definitely limited.

In all three non-civil service libraries in the study, professional employees are drawn from the nation. Of the professional employees who were appointed to these non-civil service libraries between 1937 and 1941 and who returned the staff questionnaire used in this study,⁵

⁵ This staff questionnaire was answered by thirteen hundred of the two thousand employees in these six libraries. From data supplied by the co-operating institutions, on such characteristics as age, sex,

over two-thirds were living outside the city at the time of their appointment, as compared to less than one-third of the comparable employees in the three civil service libraries.⁶ It was also found that the non-civil service libraries drew on more colleges and more library schools for their professional employees in these years than did the civil service libraries. The Detroit Public Library, in particular, has an outstanding record of regularly appointing graduates from a dozen or more library schools scattered over the country.

The superiority of the non-civil service libraries on this principle is to be expected, and the available data confirm this expectation. Not all non-civil service libraries choose their employees from the nation, but the better ones do so, while even superior civil service libraries are restricted to the city or state. The residence qualification is probably the single most important defect in the application of civil service to libraries.

Disqualification on grounds unrelated to merit.—The disqualification of individuals on grounds unrelated to merit is considered in relation to sex, marital status, race, religion, and politics. Civil service libraries are usually forbidden by law to consider those characteristics of candidates that are not related to their actual qualifications, though the wide discretion allowed the appointing officer can be used to circumvent this regulation. The authorities of the non-civil service libraries not only have the same administrative discretion but are free to

formulate selection policies that make such nonoccupational characteristics qualifying or disqualifying factors in appointment. This very freedom of the non-civil service libraries means that their stand on the matter is likely to reflect the mores of the community and the personal opinions of the trustees and chief librarians.

There is no policy forbidding the appointment of men to the professional staff of any of these six libraries, nor is there a stated preference for women. Los Angeles, Portland, and Providence have relatively few male librarians; St. Paul and Detroit, on the contrary, have an unusually large number of them. On the average, in January, 1942, the three civil service libraries had six male librarians (7 per cent of the total professional staff), and the three non-civil service libraries, seven male librarians (3 per cent of the total professional staff). In general, it is probable that young men graduating from library school are more likely to be able to secure positions as junior librarians in those civil service libraries investigated in this study than in the non-civil service libraries.

Whether married women should be given employment as professional librarians is subject to more difference of opinion than any of the other grounds of discrimination considered here. For the purposes of this study the disqualification of individuals because of their marital status is considered undesirable. The three civil service libraries have no official regulation or unofficial policy against appointing married women or against continuing their appointment after marriage. Although all three non-civil service libraries discriminate against married women to a greater or less degree, they have probably acted in good faith, influenced no doubt by tradition and per-

marital status, and previous residence, it was found that the employees answering the questionnaire are representative of the total group.

⁶ In order to give each library a weight of one, so that a large institution will not determine the average of its group, the percentages shown here are averages of the percentages of the various libraries and not total averages of the original raw data.

haps by a few unfortunate experiences. Data on the number of married women in the six libraries clearly reflect these policies. In January, 1942, 32 per cent of the women on the professional staffs of the civil service libraries were married, as contrasted with only 12 per cent of the women in the non-civil service libraries.

The appointment of Negroes unquestionably raises delicate problems for the administrator. Though none of the six libraries has any regulation, or even any unofficial ruling, against the employment of Negroes in any capacity, there is reason to believe that this policy of non-discrimination has not been observed in every instance. In January, 1942, there was an average of twenty-three Negro employees in the three civil service libraries (6 per cent of the total staff), as compared with an average of eight Negro employees in the three non-civil service libraries (2 per cent of the total staff). The main difference, however, occurred in the employment of Negroes as building-service workers. The civil service process makes it difficult to determine whether discrimination against Negroes is being practiced. In any case the civil service libraries approximate the principle in question more closely than do the non-civil service libraries.

In all six libraries the official policy is to give no consideration to the religious affiliation of applicants in the selection of employees. Estimates of the number of Jewish and Catholic employees were secured for four libraries, but the absence of complete data makes it impossible to draw any conclusions. In Portland, however, where the library's application blank asks for religious affiliation, there were no Jews on the staff in January, 1942. The American Library Association Personnel Division and the library schools of Denver, Illinois, Wisconsin,

and Columbia—of those whose reports were seen—find it advisable, furthermore, to include information on religious affiliation in their statements on students and candidates for appointment.

In the civil service and non-civil service libraries alike the political affiliation (i.e., whether Republican or Democrat) plays no part in the selection process. On the whole, libraries are relatively free from political interference, though that is not to say that political pressure has been entirely lacking. In recent years politics has at some time influenced the choice of certified eligibles or the filling of minor positions not under civil service in two of the three civil service libraries here studied. In general, however, the civil service libraries in this study appear to have a higher rating than the non-civil service libraries with respect to the principle that individual candidates should not be disqualified because of personal nonoccupational characteristics unrelated to merit.

Age.—By definition a career service demands the recruitment of employees in the entering grades at a relatively early age, so that they may be able to spend their best and most active years in the profession. None of the civil service libraries in this study has a formal maximum age qualification for examinations for junior librarian. In Portland—of the non-civil service libraries—there is no maximum age limit; in Providence applicants over forty will not be considered; and in Detroit the official qualifying age limit is set at thirty-five. The authorities in all six libraries prefer to appoint junior librarians who are under thirty or thirty-five years of age.

From the staff questionnaires used in this study it is possible to calculate the average age of the present junior librarians in each institution who were ap-

pointed to that grade between 1937 and 1941. For the three civil service libraries the average age of these junior librarians, at the time of their appointment, was thirty; for the three non-civil service libraries, it was twenty-six. It appears, therefore, that Herbert's recommendation of a maximum qualifying age limit of thirty is not unreasonable.⁷

There may be some question as to the desirability of age limits for appointments to higher positions, but, if a career service is to be established in a library, there should be a group of young professionals at the entering level, both to secure their vitality for the service of the institution and to provide a reservoir for desirable promotional appointments. On this point the policy and practice of these civil service and non-civil service libraries are generally satisfactory and not greatly different. The advantage, however, is in favor of the non-civil service institutions.

Education and experience.—Another cornerstone of a career service consists of high educational and low experiential requirements for the entering class of the professional service. Such requirements secure junior librarians with a wide cultural background and strong technical training but without extensive practical experience. None of the civil service commissions in this study requires previous experience as a prerequisite for appointment as a junior librarian, though such experience can usually be substituted for part of the required education. In Los Angeles and Oakland, college and library-school graduation are among the formal qualifications for candidates for the position of junior librarian, though the commission in the latter city is without legal power to enforce these qualifica-

tions. In St. Paul the requirements for the basic class of the professional service are one year of college and one year of experience as a library clerk.

Of the non-civil service libraries, Detroit and Portland both have an official requirement that candidates for appointment as junior librarian must be college and library-school graduates. In neither library is previous experience required. In Providence the official minimum requirements for appointment to the basic class of the professional service are high-school graduation and completion of the six-month training class.

From the staff questionnaires returned by the present junior librarians who have been appointed between 1937 and 1941, it was found that about 90 per cent of them, in both the civil service and the non-civil service libraries, are college graduates and about 80 per cent are library-school graduates. But, while 63 per cent of the junior librarians in the three non-civil service libraries were without previous professional experience, only 30 per cent of the same class of employees in the civil service libraries were without experience.⁸ In other words, junior librarians in the non-civil service libraries have about as high educational qualifications as those in the civil service institutions but tend less often to have had previous experience.

The desirability of high educational qualifications is being questioned by some civil service administrators on the ground that such requirements are more or less arbitrary and that a valid exami-

⁷ Clara W. Herbert, *Personnel Administration in Public Libraries* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1939), p. 51.

⁸ This figure of 30 per cent for the civil service libraries is the average of the data for Los Angeles and Oakland. St. Paul is omitted because the strict local-residence requirement and the fact that most junior librarians have had experience in the clerical grades of the same library make the situation non-comparable.

nation will select the most competent candidates, regardless of their formal education. This argument is theoretically sound. But written examinations have not yet been brought to such a high point of validity; the high educational requirements, furthermore, are formulated with an eye to future promotion; and, finally, the regularity with which untrained candidates fail to pass examinations for professional positions makes it advisable to save their time and that of the examining agency by eliminating them in advance. On the other hand, the desirability of experience has probably been overemphasized in librarianship. To require experience in other institutions for appointment to advanced positions results in a system of "promotion by moving" rather than one of "promotion from within." In-service training and time will compensate for the lack of experience but not for the educational training which makes college and library-school graduates natural timber for promotion.

Summary.—On three of the four qualifications discussed in this section the policies and practices of the non-civil service libraries are more nearly in accord with the principles of public personnel administration than are those of the civil service libraries. In regard to residence, age, and education and experience, the non-civil service libraries enjoy a superior rating. Only with respect to the principle that candidates should not be disqualified on grounds unrelated to merit do the civil service libraries have the higher rating. The evidence indicates that the qualifications for employment in civil service libraries are likely to be determined by limitations in statutes and civil service rules, while the more flexible procedures of the non-civil service libraries tend to reflect earlier the advancing standards of the profession.

RECRUITMENT AND APPLICATION

One of the salient characteristics of modern public personnel administration is the replacement of the attitude, "Let the man seek the job," by a positive program of recruitment. In this section attention is directed, first, to the public announcement of vacancies, since the number of qualified candidates is likely to be in proportion to the number who are aware of the vacancy; second, to the positive measures of recruitment used, since the efforts to publicize the vacancy in large measure determine the number and quality of candidates; and, third, to the use of the application blank, since it serves as a crude sieve in eliminating grossly unqualified candidates.

Public announcement of vacancies.—According to the usual civil service practice, announcements of all pending examinations for library positions are made by the three civil service commissions in this study. Such announcements appear about four to six weeks before the date of the examination and closely resemble the traditional civil service examination notice in style and form. On the other hand, no public announcement of a vacancy in any position has been made by any of the three non-civil service libraries; this is the usual practice of non-civil service institutions.

The administrators of the non-civil service libraries feel that they already have access to the best sources of supply and that public announcement of vacancies would cause more trouble than it is worth in weeding out unqualified applicants. But public administration experts uniformly advocate the opposite policy: (1) to recruit candidates from a wide field, thereby increasing the chances of securing high-quality personnel; (2) to minimize the covert influence of discrimination against minority groups; and (3)

to force employing authorities to rationalize the selection process. The public announcement of vacancies is a cornerstone of civil service practice, and the failure of the non-civil service libraries to observe this principle is not likely to receive public approbation.

It should be pointed out, however, that the residence qualification normally found under civil service imposes a very definite limitation on the beneficial results of public announcement of examinations. Furthermore, the announcements of examinations for library positions issued by the civil service commissions in this study have not been especially well prepared for selling the job to the best-qualified candidates and inducing them to apply; there is large scope for improvement in this connection. But the practice of the civil service libraries is more in accord with the general principle of the public announcement of vacancies than is that of the non-civil service libraries.

Positive measures of recruitment.—Modern public personnel administration has learned that the employees of an organization can be no better qualified than the group from which they are chosen; that it is not enough to rely on the applications filed solely on the initiative of the candidates; and that a positive program is necessary to induce the best-qualified persons available to apply for a given vacancy. Clear and direct as this obligation is for the non-civil service libraries, it is no less incumbent on those under civil service.

In the three civil service cities in this study recruitment for examinations for library positions has been the responsibility primarily of the civil service commissions, with only incidental and informal participation by the library. The authorities of all three civil service libraries expressed their satisfaction with

the recruitment work that has been done by their respective commissions, though the latter have relied for the most part only on the more or less wide distribution of the mimeographed or printed announcement of the examination. This is the traditional recruitment device of civil service. On the other hand, no examination conducted by these civil service commissions in the last five years was announced in any professional library periodical. Nor have most of the examinations for the entering professional grade been timed for the convenience of library-school students, so that registers could be established and appointments made by the end of the academic year.

The non-civil service libraries in this study follow recruiting methods common to non-civil service institutions generally. That is to say, they depend on two main sources for the names of possible candidates: the applications voluntarily filed with them by individual candidates and the recommendations of two or three library schools. The Detroit Public Library, however, draws regularly on the top dozen library schools of the country and—alone of these three libraries—occasionally seeks the help of the American Library Association Personnel Division. The fact that candidates who offer themselves to non-civil service libraries apply on their own initiative renders the use of unsolicited applications of dubious value. And the reliance on the recommendations of the library-school directors rests on the large assumption that they are competent to judge which of their students are fitted for a particular library position.

One of the items on the staff questionnaire used in this study secured information on the employee's source of information concerning the examination or vacancy by which he entered the library's service. Analysis of the three hundred

replies received from employees appointed in 1937-41 revealed (1) that the number of non-civil service employees applying without knowledge of a vacancy was twice that of the civil service employees so applying; (2) that only four persons secured their positions through the American Library Association Personnel Division; (3) that three-fifths of the non-professional employees applied on their own initiative or heard of the vacancy through friends; (4) that only about one-fourth of the employees of the civil service libraries cited the examination announcement as the source of their information; and (5) that about 45 per cent of the professional employees heard of the vacancy through their library school. Though the library schools are therefore the single most important source of candidates, experience indicates that no one method of recruitment will serve to supply the necessary applicants.

None of these six institutions has recognized its responsibility for conducting a campaign of recruitment for the profession. In general, the record of both types of libraries in regard to recruitment is far from bright. The non-civil service libraries have failed to develop a positive program of recruitment, though—as indicated above—they have secured professional employees at least as well qualified as those found in the civil service libraries. The civil service commissions, on the other hand, are doing no more than a reasonably adequate job compared to what they might do. The balance is too close to assign credit to either type of library for the utilization of superior methods of recruiting library employees.

Use of the application blank.—After the recruitment campaign the next step in the selection program should be a review of the applications. The informa-

tion supplied by the candidate on his application should be checked against the formal qualifications established as minimum requirements, and unqualified candidates should be rejected. This saves the time of both the candidate and the personnel agency and insures the observance of the qualifications that have been established.

In the three civil service libraries the official application blank is that used by the civil service commission. Usually such applications will be accepted only within the time period specified by the announcement of the examination. In all three cities applications are reviewed by the civil service commissions for some of the published requirements (e.g., residence and citizenship), but it is questionable whether they are reviewed for other qualifications to as great an extent as is desirable. Thus, the Los Angeles commission tends not to insist on absolute minimums, and the Oakland commission is unable by law to do so in all cases, though both reject the applications of grossly unqualified candidates. Similarly, these two commissions make no systematic attempt to verify the information supplied by applicants.

In the three non-civil service libraries applications can be filed at any time for any position. Typically, there is a rather full form for candidates for professional positions, but for nonprofessional positions there is either no application form at all or only a brief identification slip. In Portland and Detroit applications are briefly examined upon receipt to determine the candidate's general eligibility, but in Providence this review tends to come only when a specific vacancy leads to a survey of the applications on hand. At that point all three of these libraries verify the information supplied by the candidate for a professional position by

writing to his library school and, in doubtful cases, to his previous employers.

It is difficult to compare the performance of these libraries on their use of the application blank. The civil service application blanks are more complete than those used by the non-civil service libraries, and the process by which they are reviewed is more definite. The verification of the applications of professional librarians, however, is probably superior in the non-civil service libraries. Under both types of personnel administration improvements could be made in the application blank and its use.

Summary.—Neither type of library has demonstrated a markedly superior record in connection with recruitment and application. The civil service commissions in this study follow the usual civil service policy of public announcement of examinations, and their recruitment practices, therefore, tend to be more vigorous and positive. The residence qualification, however, seriously limits the possible effects of these measures and leaves the civil service libraries with little net gain. On the other hand, the non-civil service libraries do not announce their vacancies and utilize relatively few recruitment devices; but the results of their practices have been reasonably satisfactory, at least for professional positions. Both types of libraries are deficient in their use of the application blank.

The record of the two types of libraries in regard to recruitment illustrates the dominant characteristics of civil service and non-civil service personnel administration. Recruitment efforts of the civil service commissions are likely to be thorough and comprehensive but subject to the more or less rigid limitations of statutes, court decisions, and their own rules within which they must operate. Non-

civil service libraries, on the other hand, are more flexible in their procedures but less systematic; they do not differ greatly from colleges and universities in this regard. Each approach has its advantages; in the field of recruitment neither approach has achieved a clearly superior record.

EXAMINATIONS

Choosing the successful candidates from among those who meet the established qualifications and who have been induced to apply constitutes the major subdivision of the selection process. Under any combination of circumstances such a decision involves an examination and evaluation—no matter how informal—of the skills and abilities of the various candidates as well as their comparative ranking. Five principal aspects of the examining process are considered in this section: examinations of knowledge; evaluation of personality; intelligence tests; special-aptitude tests; and a medical examination.

Examinations of knowledge.—A primary consideration determining the selection of a person for appointment should be the extent to which he possesses, in a greater degree than his competitors, the knowledge necessary for the performance of the relevant duties. For original entrance appointment to library positions in the last five years the three civil service commissions in this study have used the written test as their principal method of determining the amount of knowledge possessed by candidates. Typically, these examinations were held only in the home city and were composed of short-answer questions. This approved type of examination question allows for the testing of substantial areas of knowledge, especially since the examinations usually last from two to four hours.

The two principal tests of the ade-

quacy of an examination relate to its reliability, or the consistency with which it measures the same thing, and its validity, or the degree to which it measures what it is supposed to measure. The scores on a recent examination for a library position were obtained from each of the three civil service commissions; by the application of various formulas the reliability of these examinations—expressed as a correlation coefficient—is estimated to range from .80 to .88. These are reasonably high correlations as measures of reliability go.

The degree of validity of an examination, however, is both more important and more difficult to estimate than the degree of reliability. Neither the civil service commissions nor the civil service libraries have made any formal studies of the validity of the library examinations.⁹ Of the possible methods of measuring validity the only ones used in this study were (1) an analysis of the methods of constructing the examination and (2) the collection of the opinions of library employees, library administrators, and informed local observers as to the validity of the examinations given in recent years. Measured by both methods, the library examinations set by the three commissions rate reasonably well. The important features of satisfactory methods of test construction are found in the practices of all three commissions. In general, too, the questionnaire and interview responses on this point indicate that the recent examinations for library positions are considered to be valid, at least "to a fair extent." The examinations for professional positions, however, were considered less satisfactory than those for nonprofessional positions.

This is not to say that the library ex-

aminations of the commissions are altogether adequate, though they are probably superior to those found in other civil service jurisdictions. In attempting to produce reliable and valid examinations the commissions have been forced to keep their procedures painfully rational and consciously objective. The result is that many of the questions deal with minute details at a rather low level of library work and fail to measure the knowledge necessary to several important areas of librarianship. But with research, experimentation, and refinement the general methods of test construction used by these commissions will probably succeed ultimately in securing the desired results.

The non-civil service libraries in this study evaluate the knowledge of candidates primarily by a study of their applications—in effect, an unassembled examination. Neither written nor oral examinations of knowledge have been used for any class of positions, save in the selection of students for the Providence Public Library training class. The use of such an unassembled examination is probably typical of non-civil service libraries generally; but, as used in these three institutions, it is a tool of somewhat questionable reliability and validity. The practices of these libraries fail to include the following necessary points of an unassembled examination: (1) a precise statement, based on a job analysis, of the qualifications desired; (2) the use of a formal rating schedule to insure that all candidates are considered on the same grounds and given equal credit for comparable qualifications; and (3) comparison of the ratings made by at least two judges, to secure objective results.

Most serious of all is the fact that the non-civil service libraries are willing to assume that all graduates of an accredited library school are sufficiently equal in their knowledge of librarianship to make

⁹ Two studies have been made of civil service examinations for the Oakland Public Library by students at the University of California.

further differentiation on this ground unnecessary in the selection of general assistants. The wide variations in academic grades, in civil service examination scores, and in the actual performance of individuals are enough to raise questions as to the correctness of this assumption. In addition, various studies in librarianship and other fields tend to cast doubt on its accuracy. Yet the use of written examinations in the selection of employees is rarely found in non-civil service libraries.

In comparison with the techniques used in the non-civil service libraries in this study, the civil service examinations are much further advanced toward achieving the goal of objective, reliable, and valid measures of the knowledge possessed by candidates. They have at least laid the basis on which future research can be built; such a foundation is lacking in the selection work of the non-civil service libraries. In examinations of knowledge the practices of the civil service libraries in this study are more nearly in accord with the principles of public personnel administration than are those of the non-civil service libraries.

Evaluation of personality.—The knowledge possessed by candidates is a measurable and relatively discrete characteristic. So also is the state of their health and, to a lesser extent, the degree of general abstract intelligence that they possess. The other personal traits of the candidates for appointment are here considered together under the general heading of personality. Only a limited amount of work has been done to develop valid and reliable measures in this field; and, typically, the methods used by the civil service and non-civil service libraries are made to apply to all aspects of personality.

In the three civil service cities an oral interview lasting about fifteen minutes

forms part of all examinations for professional library positions and constitutes the main method for the evaluation of personality. In Los Angeles and St. Paul the procedures that have been developed are reasonably satisfactory and relatively effective. In both cities only those traits are rated which are thought necessary for successful performance of the duties of the position in question and are observable in an interview; such traits include physical appearance, voice and speech, judgment, ability to present ideas, etc. A panel of three judges is used, including some librarians, though not of the staff of the local public library; the ratings of the judges are recorded on a graphic rating scale in Los Angeles and on a Probst Personality Report in St. Paul.

In Oakland, however, the oral interview is usually conducted solely by the chief examiner of the Civil Service Board; nine-tenths of the interview is an oral examination of knowledge and one-tenth a rating on "Apparent Adaptability"—in effect, the examiner's individual opinion of unspecified aspects of the personality of the candidate. Furthermore, the Oakland Civil Service Board makes a deliberate effort to minimize the influence of the oral interview by limiting the scores for all but the most obviously unqualified candidates to the range between seventy and eighty-five. This policy—that a candidate should not fail the examination because of a low mark on the interview part alone—is followed to a lesser extent in Los Angeles; it is explained in both cases by the disrepute into which earlier oral interviews of these commissions had fallen and by the knowledge that personality ratings are highly unreliable.

In the non-civil service libraries the standard device for the evaluation of a candidate's personality is a personal interview, lasting usually for thirty min-

utes. Normally, only those candidates are interviewed who apply in person or who have been selected for serious consideration for appointment, though some professional employees have been appointed in Portland and Detroit without interviews. In none of these non-civil service libraries is there any formal statement of the specific personality traits desired, save that in Portland the trait most valued is extroversion. In each of these libraries a candidate is usually interviewed separately by at least two officers, but nothing is done to assure that both interviewers will look for the same qualities. No rating scales or report blanks are used; the only result of the rating process is a subjective over-all impression expressed in a few words on the candidate's application.

In addition to these personal interviews with the candidate the non-civil service libraries regularly secure the confidential reports of the library schools and are guided by them to a large extent. The adequacy of the ratings issued by the library schools can be questioned as to their internal reliability (not to speak of the comparability of the reports received from the different schools) and as to their validity. The one study in this field does not induce confidence in the methods used by library schools in evaluating the personality of their students.¹⁰

Probably the best practical test of personality is the individual's performance on the job during the probationary period. The problem, however, is to predict his behavior on the job; to do this, both the civil service and the non-civil service libraries are relying essentially on a direct face-to-face conversation between the selecting authority and the

candidate. Such a personal interview is a valuable tool, but one with limited possibilities. Three main problems are involved: (1) defining the traits desired, (2) concentrating attention on those specific traits in the candidate, and (3) securing reliable ratings. To solve these problems, the civil service commissions rely more on consciously objective procedures and less on intuitive response in their attempts to measure personality. The results are sometimes faulty and often crude, but no better way has yet been found that will bear analysis. Thus, the St. Paul Civil Service Board, which has brought its procedures to a high point of development, has statistical evidence that indicates a reasonable degree of success in isolating personality traits and securing reliable ratings of them.

Though many pencil-and-paper tests of personality are available and widely used, neither type of personnel administration has chosen to experiment with them. To the frequent comment that civil service fails to test for personality must be added the fact that non-civil service libraries also fail to test adequately for personality. The non-civil service libraries in this study are prepared to reject candidates because of unsatisfactory personality ratings, but there is no assurance that, as Clarence Sherman suggests, "personality" is not synonymous with what the selecting officer happens to like or dislike in people. Though the civil service libraries deliberately minimize the influence of the scores for interviews, in two cases out of three those scores are reached through a conscious striving after objectivity. Between these two positions there is little to choose, save that the civil service procedures alone offer the necessary foundation for further progress.

Intelligence and special-aptitude tests.—

¹⁰ M. A. Milczewski, "Personality Rating of Library School Students" (unpublished Master's thesis, Library School, University of Illinois, 1940).

In selecting an employee for a specific vacancy it is natural to think of the particular qualifications needed for that position. But, if a career service is to be developed, the persons given original entrance appointments should be selected with a view to their suitability for promotion to advanced positions. It is for this reason that junior librarians should be required to have had extensive education. For the same reason it is desirable that in the selection process the general intelligence of the candidates and their special aptitude for library work should be considered, even beyond the point where those qualities might be necessary for the immediate vacancy.

None of the three civil service commissions in this study makes any attempt to test for special aptitude in candidates for library positions; and none uses any type of standardized intelligence test—a fact due, at least in part, to their fear of public reaction to what might seem like irrelevant questions. However, the Los Angeles Civil Service Commission, in some of its examinations for library positions, has attempted to measure general intelligence through questions, constructed around library problems and stated in library terminology, on such matters as word usage, ability to analyze situations, and reasoning ability. And the scores on the 1941 St. Paul page examination—which, in view of the elementary nature of the duties of the position, was an examination of general knowledge—are found to have a correlation of .68 with the known intelligence quotients of the candidates, as determined by various standard tests administered no more than five years earlier.

None of the three non-civil service libraries attempts to isolate and measure either special aptitude or general intelligence in the candidates considered for

appointment, though they presumably have greater freedom than the civil service libraries to experiment in this direction. Other organizations—particularly the Bureau of Public Personnel Administration—have reported the scores of library employees on intelligence tests; an accumulation of large numbers of such records is needed to provide norms and critical scores for the guidance of individual libraries. Some work in the determination of special aptitude has been done by library schools in connection with the selection of students; but practically nothing has been reported in regard to the selection of library employees, despite the solid amount of research that has been accomplished in the general field of aptitude-testing.

Neither the civil service nor the non-civil service libraries considered in this investigation are taking any steps to measure aptitude or general abstract intelligence, save for a few nonsystematic attempts by the civil service commissions to test for intelligence. Neither type of library has demonstrated a superior record in this regard.

Medical examination.—Examination by a physician before original entrance appointment is clearly desirable for at least three reasons: (1) to secure employees who are in good health and free from disease or disqualifying physical defects; (2) to protect the retirement plan by eliminating potential disability cases; and (3) to prevent financial loss to the library, under workmen's compensation laws, as a result of employee injuries.

In all three civil service cities candidates for library positions are given a medical examination by the civil service commission's doctor, usually after they have passed the written test and are about to be considered for appointment. In Los Angeles and St. Paul this exami-

nation is free; in Oakland the candidate pays a fee of one dollar. The library authorities in the three cities feel that the medical examination is reasonably adequate and report that some candidates for library employment have been rejected on this examination in recent years.

None of the non-civil service libraries in this study has hitherto required a medical examination of candidates for any position, though their application blanks contain questions regarding the candidate's health and physical defects. Late in 1941, however, a series of compensation cases led the Detroit Public Library to institute a medical examination for building-service employees. This will be given by a doctor chosen by the library and will be without cost to the candidate.

The chief purpose of a medical examination is to secure healthy employees. Presumably, the success of this policy should be found in the sick-leave record of the institution. But, when data on this point were secured, it was found that on the average the employees of the civil service libraries were absent six and one-half days in 1941 because of illness, while the employees of the non-civil service libraries were absent less than four days on the average. These data, however, are not altogether comparable, and the records of the institutions in the two groups overlap.

Despite the failure of the data on sick leave to justify the use of a medical examination, the desirability of such an examination is apparent. Since the principle relates to the use of a medical examination and not to the amount of time lost through illness, the practices of the civil service libraries more nearly conform to the principle in question than do those of the non-civil service libraries.

Summary.—The civil service libraries in this study use approved practices in examinations of knowledge and medical examinations to a greater degree than do the non-civil service libraries. The same rating is made of the procedures used by the civil service libraries in the evaluation of personality, but it applies more to the potential than to the actual results of their present policies. Neither type of personnel administration has taken any important steps to test for intelligence or special aptitude. One of the main advantages of civil service is the use of objective examinations in the selection of employees, though the best civil service examination cannot compensate for the elimination of superior applicants because of a residence requirement. On the other hand, the reliance of the selecting officers of the non-civil service libraries on unsupported individual judgments offers no assurance that the "best" applicant will be selected. In general, as far as examinations are concerned, the practices of the civil service libraries in this study are judged to be more nearly in accord with the principles of modern public personnel administration than are those of the non-civil service libraries.

APPOINTMENT PROCEDURES

The selection process is not completed with the examination of applicants. Appointment procedures are integral parts of the selection process, and their proper functioning is important in a career service. Three such procedures concern (1) temporary appointments, (2) the use of the probationary period, and (3) the maintenance of eligible lists with the names of qualified candidates for positions to which appointments are likely to be made frequently.

Temporary appointments.—The appointment of persons whose services will

be needed for a limited time only is so necessary in the administration of most institutions that provision is almost always made for it in both civil service and non-civil service libraries. Such temporary appointments are sometimes used, however, to evade the qualifications required of permanent appointees. To safeguard a career service, therefore, such abuse must be prevented.

No more than about twenty-five temporary appointments of all kinds are made annually in each of the civil service libraries in this study. This is explained by the relatively stringent civil service regulations. Thus, temporary appointments must be offered to persons on regular civil service registers; in general, the period of service is limited to sixty or ninety days. To secure greater flexibility in work schedules, the Los Angeles and Oakland Public Libraries have developed a corps of part-time employees for the nonprofessional and junior-librarian grades. Though these employees are selected by civil service procedures, they are usually paid at a lower rate than permanent full-time employees doing comparable work.

The regulations for temporary appointments in the non-civil service libraries are less rigid but also less uniform. The Detroit Public Library appoints about forty summer substitutes each year and perhaps a dozen other temporary employees in the winter. In Portland temporary appointments average about ten a year, though substitutes for Sunday or summer work or other short periods are more common. In Providence from ten to fifteen substitutes and temporary assistants are employed at any one time, and substitute work is used as a means of giving practical experience to the training-class students and graduates. All three non-civil

service libraries have found it necessary to waive age limits, educational qualifications, and the rules against married women in order to secure a sufficient number of temporary employees. The result is that temporary employees in these libraries are not generally given permanent appointments, except in the case of training-class graduates in Providence.

From the staff questionnaires used in this study it was found that on the average 12 per cent of the present permanent employees of the civil service libraries had entered the service of the library by a temporary appointment, as contrasted with 10 per cent of the employees in the three non-civil service libraries. Furthermore, the present number of temporary employees is uniform—3 per cent for each group of libraries. On the whole, both the civil service and non-civil service libraries have demonstrated points of strength and weakness in their practices concerning temporary appointments; neither group has a clearly superior record in this regard.

Probationary period.—The most valid test of competence yet devised is actual performance on the job. The probationary period should be used intelligently and courageously as the final step in selecting employees. To do so intelligently means that the employee should be informed that he is on probation for a specified period; that he should be given proper orientation and induction into the service; that his work should be systematically evaluated; and that his appointment should be made permanent only by positive action. To use this device courageously means that unsatisfactory probationers should be dismissed.

The official rules of the civil service commissions in this study require a probationary period of six months in Los Angeles and St. Paul and a period of one

year in Oakland. Orientation of new employees is left to the library authorities and consists for the most part of job instruction only. Periodic service rating reports are filed for all new employees by regulation of the library in Los Angeles and of the civil service commissions in Oakland and St. Paul. Probationary appointments in the Los Angeles Public Library are automatically converted into permanent appointments without positive action by either library or civil service authorities. In Oakland the Civil Service Board reminds the library administration of the expiration of probationary appointments for employees who have been given unsatisfactory service ratings; no further action is required or taken. In St. Paul, however, the librarian must specifically request the permanent appointment of every probationer; if no such request is made, the Civil Service Bureau will inform the employee that he is dismissed.

Of the non-civil service libraries, Portland observes no probationary period; in Providence it is one year for professional employees. The official probationary period in Detroit is one year also, but this official period has been largely ignored. Orientation of new employees, especially of nonprofessional workers, is not well developed in these libraries. In 1941 both Detroit and Portland instituted the first of an annual series of talks and planned work experiences, and in Providence new professional employees are required to take the training-class course in library management. Evaluation of the work of new employees is achieved primarily through informal oral or written reports from the employee's supervisor, supplemented by service ratings made annually or less often in Providence and Detroit. In Detroit no positive action is needed to convert a probationary ap-

pointment into a permanent appointment; in Providence, however, the librarian usually informs the employee of the successful completion of his probation.

The number of employees discharged as unsatisfactory during their probationary period is uniformly low in all six institutions. On the average, about five probationers—almost all nonprofessionals—were released in the period 1937-41 by each library; this is less than 2 per cent of the total number of appointments made in these years. As a check on the effectiveness of the probationary period one item on the staff questionnaire asked the employee to indicate the length of time he had served on probation. Of those appointed since 1937, 64 per cent in the civil service libraries knew the correct length of their probationary period, as opposed to 23 per cent of those in the non-civil service libraries.

Both types of libraries need to increase the effectiveness with which the probationary period is used as a step in the selection process. But the civil service libraries here studied receive a rating on this principle that is definitely, though only slightly, higher than that of the non-civil service libraries. The latter have developed better induction programs for their professional personnel, but Portland has no stated probationary period and Detroit has largely ignored its official period. The three civil service libraries tend to use formal methods of evaluating the work of probationers, and their employees are more often aware of the length of the period they served on probation than are the employees of the non-civil service libraries.

Eligible lists.—Up to this point the selection process has been considered in terms of the unit position to be filled. Obviously, it would be inefficient to re-

peat the whole process for each individual vacancy, especially for classes of positions to which appointments are likely to be made frequently. For such classes of positions, lists of the best-qualified candidates—as determined by the regular selection process—should be prepared in anticipation of vacancies and should be revised at least annually if they are to retain their value for current use.

Civil service eligible lists are established originally for two years in Los Angeles and Oakland and for one year in St. Paul. In each case they may be renewed once for the same periods, but no registers for library positions have been renewed in recent years in Los Angeles or Oakland. New registers in these cities are usually not established until a vacancy exists for which no eligibles are available; the Oakland Civil Service Board, however, takes special pains to watch the rate of appointments from existing lists and to have new registers available when needed. Eligible lists in these cities are generally ready by six weeks after the examination. All candidates on these registers are informed of their rank and score, and in Oakland the complete list is posted publicly.

None of the non-civil service libraries has formal lists of qualified candidates to which the library authorities necessarily turn first when a vacancy occurs. Most of their new appointments, however, are made in the summer and fall; and the file of applications received by these libraries constitutes a kind of informal eligible list. In all three institutions the selection process starts with a review of these applications; if no satisfactory candidates are found here, recourse is usually had to the library schools. All the nonprofessional and about one-third of the professional appointments in these non-civil service libraries are made from the can-

didates who have filed applications with the institution on their own initiative.

The procedures of the non-civil service libraries allow them to consider for each vacancy any new candidates who make themselves available. The only parallel to this under civil service is the continuously open examination system, by which candidates may apply at any time, be examined, and be given a rating and a place on the register. Of the three civil service cities in this study, this plan is found only in Oakland, where it was introduced in 1941 for library pages. But the typical civil service procedures are, in general, quite inflexible. Thus, two years is too long for an eligible list to be used advantageously. From the incomplete data available it appears that only about half the candidates who obtained a place on the registers for positions in these civil service libraries in the years 1937-41 were appointed; many of the others probably waived certification or were not available. On the other hand, the non-civil service libraries rarely reveal the rating of candidates for appointment in comparison with other applicants. The appointing officers in these civil service libraries have a choice of the top three names; the authorities of the non-civil service libraries tend to make their final choice from no more than five candidates.

The procedures of the non-civil service libraries are clearly less systematic than are those of the civil service libraries, but at the same time they are more flexible. The civil service registers are used for a longer period than is considered desirable, but the non-civil service libraries sometimes draw on applications that are even older. The civil service registers, however, are given much more public access than are the equivalent records of the non-civil service libraries. Further-

more, it is probable that the non-civil service libraries go through the complete selection process more often than do the civil service libraries for a given number of vacancies. The practices of the civil service libraries are, then, somewhat more in accord with the principles of good personnel administration than are those of the non-civil service libraries.

Summary.—Appointment procedures must be considered in order to secure a full understanding of the selection process. No particular abuse of temporary appointments is found in either type of library, which speaks well for the civil service institutions in view of the traditional misuse of this device under civil service. The potential uses of the probationary period have not been fully explored by either the civil service or the non-civil service libraries, though the former are probably more active in this connection than the latter. Similarly, in regard to eligible lists, the civil service libraries are utilizing this tool to a greater extent than the non-civil service libraries, but with no high degree of skill or effectiveness. In short, the civil service libraries have a record in regard to these appointment procedures that is definitely, though only slightly, more in accord with the statement of the principles than is that of the non-civil service libraries.

CONCLUSIONS

This study does not attempt to answer completely or finally the question of whether it is or is not desirable to extend civil service to public libraries. From the evidence that has been presented, however, some major conclusions may be drawn that are relevant to that question and to the development of a career service in librarianship under either type of personnel administration. These conclusions are presented in three main sec-

tions: (1) a summary of the comparison between the civil service and the non-civil service public libraries included in this investigation; (2) the general characteristics of personnel practices in the civil service and the non-civil service libraries; and (3) recommendations for the further development of a career service in librarianship.

Summary of the comparison between civil service and non-civil service public libraries.—The purpose of this investigation was to ascertain whether the application of civil service procedures to public libraries results in programs of employee selection that are more adequate or less adequate than those found in non-civil service libraries. It did not attempt to determine whether civil service or non-civil service libraries have the "better" employees, nor can it pretend to offer any categorical answer to the question of the application of civil service to libraries. Stated in other words, the question to which this study was addressed is this: Do the employee-selection practices of civil service libraries or of non-civil service libraries more nearly resemble those considered necessary for a career service?

The criteria used in this evaluation are twenty principles of public personnel administration, designed to embody the concept of a career service and presumably applicable to all types of governmental agencies. Since all of the principles are not of equal importance, it will be more realistic to summarize the findings according to the six major aspects of employee selection by which the twenty principles were grouped for purposes of discussion. The civil service libraries conform more closely to the principles with respect to position classification, examinations, and appointment procedures; the non-civil service libraries with

respect to organization for personnel administration, and the qualifications for employment; neither type of library has used approved practices, to any great degree, with respect to recruitment and application.

Since the difference with respect to some of these principles is slight, the final result of the investigation may be stated as follows: No substantial superiority has been revealed either by these civil service over these non-civil service libraries, or vice versa, in the use of approved practices of employee selection. The available evidence indicates that, on the whole, the three civil service libraries are using the approved principles of employee selection to as great an extent as are the three non-civil service libraries in this study.

General characteristics of personnel practices in the civil service and non-civil service public libraries.—The bare answer to the specific question at the heart of this study will be better understood by a brief analysis of the essential characteristics of the two types of personnel administration. Three major and differentiating characteristics of the employee-selection practices of the civil service libraries in this study are: (1) the systematic and comprehensive nature of their personnel regulations, accompanied by some rigidity in operation; (2) the tendency of the civil service commission to act only as an external agency for the selection of employees, rather than as a complete central personnel agency; and (3) the general insistence on the residence requirement (or the failure to allow examinations to be taken in other cities), with all its effects in reducing the value of otherwise desirable recruitment and examination practices.

Similarly, three outstanding characteristics of the personnel practices of the

non-civil service libraries may be emphasized: (1) the flexibility of their personnel regulations, arising in part from the fact that they are often informal and uncodified; (2) the resemblance they bear to the employee-selection practices of educational institutions, especially colleges and universities; and (3) their failure to develop the technical aspects of personnel administration or to utilize the results of personnel research.

In practice the extension of civil service to libraries has failed to produce the ideal results that contemporary discussions of civil service might lead one to expect. The chief defects found in the application of civil service selection procedures to libraries are: (1) the residence qualification, (2) failure of the commission to understand the library's problems, and (3) failure of the commission to do competent work. But the civil service libraries themselves must share the responsibility for the failure to develop a career service in librarianship. Adoption of civil service insures that government employment shall be a lifework but not necessarily a career service; it does not remove the necessity for internal personnel administration but only alters some of the forms it will take.

On the other hand, the salient fact about the non-civil service libraries in this study is that, on the whole, they have failed to utilize their freedom from civil service to develop a superior program of personnel administration. They are not making the advances in personnel administration that it is reasonable to expect them to have made and that are likely to be demanded of them as the price of their continued exemption from civil service. By and large, they are utilizing practices which are typical and traditional in public library administration; these methods are being applied

more effectively, but their basic design has not been improved. Nor are they applying the newer knowledge of personnel management; the administrators of all three non-civil service libraries in this study feel that they are giving about as much attention to personnel administration as might reasonably be expected.

The bases of modern personnel administration are reasonably clear and well known. Good personnel administration does not require a formal civil service system, but it does require procedures that can be shown by objective and statistical analysis to be valid and reliable. When the practices reported for these libraries are evaluated by principles necessary for a career service, it becomes clear that both the civil service and non-civil service libraries need to give increased attention to personnel administration. The comparative ratings of the two types of libraries made in this study should not be permitted to disguise the fact that neither type of library has succeeded in developing a wholly satisfactory career service in librarianship.

Recommendations for the further development of a career service in librarianship.

—Before great weight can be attached to the findings of this study, they must be confirmed or corrected by other investigations. The conclusions of this study are valid only within the limitations of the data that were collected and the assumptions that were made. If it is assumed, however, that the findings of this study are substantially correct, the evidence that has been presented suggests several recommendations for the further development of a career service in librarianship.

With respect to internal administration there are four main points to which attention should be directed. The nu-

merous specific reforms that might thereupon be undertaken are easily deduced from the implications of the concept of a career service. (1) The immediate responsibility for personnel administration should be definitely assigned to a qualified individual. (2) A formal and detailed statement of the library's personnel policies should be prepared and distributed. (3) Adequate personnel records should be installed and a program of factual study begun. (4) Personnel policies for the nonprofessional staff should be reviewed and revised so that a career service may be provided for such employees as well as for the professional staff.

A career service in librarianship can also be fostered in a number of ways that involve primarily agencies outside the library. For example, closer co-ordination between civil service and state certification of librarians would help to establish the qualifications of library personnel. Increased use of joint examinations, co-operatively developed by various civil service commissions, may result in a co-ordinated system for the selection of library employees. The American Library Association and some of the state library associations have shown that a great deal of help can be rendered by these bodies in the improvement of library personnel administration. And the contributions that general personnel research can make to librarianship have not yet been tapped.

Finally, it will not be amiss to point out that one way by which librarians can further develop a career service for themselves is by helping to raise the standards of personnel administration in the public service generally. The proper selection and direction of well-qualified employees is becoming an increasingly important

phase of public administration. All the public service professions are affected, and all are vitally interested in the development of a career service in government employment. The non-civil service libraries should be interested in the matter also, for the issue is not necessarily one of civil service versus non-civil service. Under either type of personnel administration a career service is possible.

The results of this study indicate that superior civil service libraries are using the approved principles of personnel administration in the selection of employees to as great an extent as are superior

non-civil service libraries. It has been found that the main disadvantage of civil service is the residence requirement or—what amounts to the same thing—the failure to hold the complete examination in other cities; the main advantage of civil service lies in the use of objective examination procedures. The absence of such examination procedures is the principal defect of the non-civil service libraries, while their chief advantage is found in the flexibility of their regulations. In short, more attention to personnel administration is needed in both types of institutions if a career service in librarianship is to be developed.

MANUSCRIPTS IN MICROFILM

PROBLEMS OF LIBRARIAN AND CUSTODIAN

WILLIAM JEROME WILSON

In 1942 the American Council of Learned Societies, in administering for the Rockefeller Foundation the project for microcopying research materials in Britain, became concerned about the cataloging of the films that were arriving at the Library of Congress. Since most of these represented early manuscripts, I was asked to make a study of the problems involved, and toward the end of the year I submitted to the Council an extensive report, the motive of which was to furnish a factual and logical groundwork for administrative decisions. To this end it sought, in the first place, to determine what had so far been done with the handling and control of this particular filming project, what had been done at the Library of Congress with other similar projects, and what had been done there and elsewhere with the whole problem of the cataloging of manuscripts. It attempted, in the second place, some analysis of the principles of such cataloging.

The material there assembled has been used as the basis for two articles, of which this is the first. The nature of the original report undoubtedly carries over into the articles based upon it. It was not primarily designed for library technicians, and I feel some misgiving in presenting the articles in a periodical read chiefly by trained librarians, to whom many of the expositions of library science will seem elementary and commonplace. It may entertain them, however, and I trust it will not at too many points grieve them, to see how a layman struggles to set forth these matters for the comprehension of other laymen. And in it all they will recognize an honest effort to use the tried and tested principles of library science, in so far as I understand them, as a foundation in the relatively new field of card catalogs of manuscripts.

The investigation has been aided by information, advice, and criticism from many sources. To Dr. Waldo G. Leland, director of the American Council of Learned Societies, I am indebted for first authorizing me to attempt the study. Without his persistence and his administrative skill it is doubtful if such a project of microcopying would ever have been devised by and for American scholarship. Dr. Herbert A. Kellar, of the McCormick Historical Association Library, who headed the committee on selection, and Mr. Eugene B. Power, president of University Microfilms, whose company did the photographing, have provided invaluable information on the methods and the progress of the enterprise. For advice on the technical processes and the future prospects of microcopying I am greatly indebted to Dr. Vernon D. Tate, of the National Archives, and to the *Journal of Documentary Reproduction*.

The substance of the second article, which will treat of the theory and practice of manuscript cataloging, has been more profoundly influenced by Dr. William Warner Bishop, librarian emeritus of the University of Michigan, than by any other one person. Professor E. A. Lowe, of the Institute for Advanced Studies, and Professor Stephan G. Kuttner, of the Catholic University of America, have also made acute and useful comments on the same portion of the investigation.

As for the Library of Congress, I have appealed to so many members of the staff, from the chief assistant librarian down, for information about past practices and future policies, and they have responded with so much frankness and unreserve, that at times the report may inadvertently seem to speak with official authority. In reality, the decisions on several of the matters discussed are still tentative, and Mr. Herman H. Henkle, director of the Processing Department, in the most penetrating general criticism to which the report has yet been subjected, suggests that certain of the points be reserved for administrative discretion. Mr. Vincent L. Eaton, during his years in charge of the Modern Language Association's important collection of reproductions of manuscripts and rare books, faced many of these same problems. He also has criticized the entire report and made possible a score of improvements in wording and in substance.

Several additional acknowledgments will be found in the footnotes. I forbear here to extend further the roster of those from whom I have asked assistance, lest it become tantamount to a confession of complete unoriginality.

MICROPHOTOGRAPHY IN HISTORICAL
PERSPECTIVE

IT is not difficult to draw up a bill of indictment against the microfilm. In the form of a roll it is a wretchedly inconvenient substitute for a manuscript or a book. One does not pick it up, scan the title-page, turn the leaves, and read in it here and there at will. Instead, one calls for it by number, threads it into an expensive reading machine, turns on a light, grinds a crank, adjusts a focusing device, and with good luck finds that the reading matter is neither upside down nor in reverse. If the original volume was tightly bound, the inner edges of the pages look bent and are hard to read. If some of the leaves were rubbed or soiled, the process of filming has rarely improved them. In the case of manuscripts with many small marks of abbreviation or contraction, it may be hard to tell from a film whether certain flyspecks and streaks of dirt are parts of the original writing or not. In the case of imperfectly printed books, commas may appear as periods, e's as o's, and so on. It is true that "the flyspeck school of research," as it has been called, is concerned with only a very few of the existing manuscripts or incunabula and with almost no later books; and yet cases do occur in which a single dot or stroke or letter has historical significance.¹

One other drawback of the film is maddening. Interpretive scholarship involves much comparison of evidence and authorities. Most scholarly treatises are written with an array of open books upon the desk. The editing of texts, in particular, requires the careful collation, letter by letter, of a number of manuscript or

incunable copies of the same work. How shall this be done with films? Only by a multiplicity of reading machines or by a constant unthreading and rethreading of the films. Either that or the trouble and expense of having a set of enlarged prints struck off.

May we, however, perhaps be wrong in thinking of microfilms precisely as substitutes for manuscripts or books? Many new techniques of communication have a way of supplementing rather than supplanting the old ones. Oral speech did not cease when a code of marks and lines was developed to represent articulate sounds. The new system of written symbols simply took its place beside the spoken symbols and fulfilled the functions to which it was best adapted. As compared with the "winged words" of direct conversation, written communication is slow, cumbrous, and generally unsatisfactory; yet by it the barriers of time and space can be largely overcome. By means of writing one sends a message to a distant friend or leaves a record for posterity.

It was the same with printing. The press did not supplant the pen, though many fifteenth-century scribes feared that it would. Despite such forebodings, all educated persons still learned to write by hand and do so to this day. In China, strange to say, the scribes seem to have made no protests when printing was invented. There were reasons for this. For one thing, the Chinese worked up to the use of movable type slowly and gradually, so that there was little or no displacement of handicraftsmen. The employment of the wooden block came first, and for this kind of printing it was necessary to inscribe by hand on paper a complete copy of the book. Each page was then placed over a wooden block, and the white portions were cut down by hand.

¹ For an effective marshaling of these and similar considerations see William A. Jackson, "Some Limitations of Microfilm," *Papers of the Bibliographical Society of America*, XXXV (1941), 281-88.

The book printed from such blocks was really a facsimile of a manuscript. To a large extent it still was handwork, and the scribes themselves did it, hardly realizing that they were developing a new trade or craft. The nature of the Chinese writing long prevented the development of movable type, though experiments with it were made as far back as A.D. 1030. With a font of some fifteen thousand characters it was almost as much labor to hunt out a particular character and later return it to its place as it was to make a new one for each use. Only with the development of processes on the general principle of the linotype did Chinese printing come into its own.³

The European invention of printing was swifter and more disquieting. It was an example—the first on record—of mass production, and the scribes displayed the typical reaction of displaced craftsmen to technological advance. They were against it. Chinese printing had developed two of the characteristic features of a mass-production method, namely, mechanical manipulation and a standardized product. European printing added the third—interchangeable parts. This was a genuine revolution in the means of communication. Some scribes took up the new art and became printers themselves, but others protested against the innovation, and certain of the scholars of the age joined them. The new kind of book, they declared, was an inferior product, and really fastidious persons would have nothing to do with it. It lacked the beauty and grace of the manuscript. It was, in fact, “a barbarous invention and a method hatched out of barbarous

thought.”⁴ Another complaint was that the printed book lacked individuality, all copies being monotonously alike. There is a story, probably apocryphal but showing the mood of the times, about the first Gutenberg Bibles sold in Paris. They were passed off, it would seem, as manuscripts. But two of the purchasers, the king and the archbishop, compared their new books and found them all alike except for the ornamented initials. This, they concluded, could be nothing but magic, and the vendor, under suspicion of witchcraft, is supposed to have fled the city.⁴

The student of historical parallels will be charmed by the similarity between fifteenth-century complaints against printing and modern complaints against films. The words and substance are different, but the tune sounds much the same. The answer to the protests is simple enough. The film is not destined to supplant the book but to fulfil uses of its own. Its defects are many and plain. It is certain that no one having a manuscript or a rare book at hand would of his own free will employ a film copy instead. It is undeniable that a photograph sometimes lies and that the most refined textual criticism requires recourse to the original. But, if the original is not available, a film is a fair makeshift and will serve for the initial stages of an investigation. When all is said and done, it is cheaper and less troublesome to use a reading machine than to travel to the British Museum.

³ George Merula, in the Preface to his 1482 edition of Varro (Hain 14565). Not seen, the Library of Congress copy being now in storage outside of Washington. I owe the citation to the kindness of Mr. William A. Slade.

⁴ Prosper Marchand, *Histoire ... de l'imprimerie* (La Haye, 1740), p. 27, quotes an authority of 1609 for the story of Fust at Paris. See also Samuel Palmer, *A General History of Printing* (London, 1733), p. 88.

² Cf. A. W. Hummel, “The Development of the Book in China,” *Journal of the American Oriental Society*, LXI (1941), 71–76. The observations given above, however, on the attitude of Chinese scribes are based on personal conversation with Dr. Hummel.

MICROPRINT AND THE FILM OF
THE FUTURE

While the microfilm is certainly here to stay and has already begun to make its way in the world, there is no assurance that it has yet attained its full majority. One important technological development that appears to be imminent is microprint, itself usually made through the medium of a microfilm. One method is designed to put one hundred pages of a book or manuscript on each side of a single sheet of photographic paper. The first step is to make the film. This is then cut into strips of ten frames each, and ten such strips are laid one below another on the paper. When the hundred frames have been printed, the sheet is placed in a specially designed reading machine, and by a simple mechanical control the desired page is selected for enlargement on a screen. The device reduces a good-sized book or set of books to a very small compass and so retains one of the most important features of microphotography, namely, the saving of space. Microprint is also easier to handle than film; in fact, it can be bound between covers and stood on a shelf with other books. The chief drawback is the cost. Only in an edition of about six copies can a microprinted book compete in price with the film.⁵

It is doubtful if microprint has yet attained its maximum development, and even less has thus far been done with another somewhat similar method, namely, the microfilm in sheet form.⁶ Ulti-

mately the significance of both these methods may prove to lie less in their present achievements than in their suggestion of the shape of things to come. In a general way, the evolution of the film seems to be running parallel to that of the book. After countless experiments with other forms, the ancient peoples settled down to the roll, using papyrus or dressed skin in Europe but silk in China. This was followed by a curious halfway stage when the long strip, now made of paper, was folded alternately forward and backward like a railroad timetable to form the "accordion-pleated book." Then finally, before the third century in Europe but a thousand years later in China, came the actual cutting of the leaves and the sewing of them to form the "codex."⁷ At first the scroll seems to have varied capriciously in length, but, by the time the Hellenistic libraries had been organized, it had become more or less standardized at about thirty-five feet. This was as much as it was convenient to roll back and forth, and it is reflected in the length of the "books" of Livy and Caesar, of Chronicles and Kings, and of the Christian Gospels.⁸ As it happens, thirty-five feet is just about the maximum length that those of us care to handle who prefer to forego the large reading machines and run our films by hand through a simple projector.

Is the art of microphotography strug-

⁵ Cf. M. L. Raney, "Microprint," *Journal of Documentary Reproduction*, IV (1941), 94-96; also E. L. Erickson, "The Sessional Papers Project," *Journal of Documentary Reproduction*, IV (1941), 83-93. But Dr. Tate reminds me that the full practical development of microprint, like prosperity, has for several years been "just around the corner."

⁶ Cf. J. A. Reyniers, P. C. Trexler, and R. F. Ervin, "The Use of Flat Film for Microcopy," *Journal of Documentary Reproduction*, IV (1941),

3-8. The flat-filming program of the Committee on Scientific Aids to Learning was interrupted by the outbreak of war.

⁷ See n. 2 above.

⁸ Cf. F. G. Kenyon, "Book Divisions in Greek and Latin Literature," in *William Warner Bishop: A Tribute*, ed. H. M. Lydenberg and Andrew Keogh (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1941), pp. 63-75.

gling through a transition like that which led from the scroll to the leaved book? Is this perhaps the significance of microprint and of the recent experiments with sheet microfilm? What the ultimate users would like to have is fairly clear. On the one hand, they would like to retain the cheapness of the microfilm, its saving of space, and its ease of transportation. On the other hand, they would like to get away from the roll and spindle and have their film in some kind of leaved form, capable of standing up on a shelf with other books and of being manipulated by hand rather than by machinery. They would like it to be readable through some simple device which would throw the image on any blank wall—something about the shape of a large flashlight that could be screwed into any electric light socket. In fact—not to be modest about the matter—they would like to be able to stand in a stack full of microfilmed books and “browse” among them as they might among any other books. This is asking a good deal. Frankly, it is asking for technological impossibilities, at least by present standards. But human ingenuity is probably not yet exhausted, and there can be no objection to stating what is desired. After all, the wants of the cash customers do have an influence on the course of scientific invention.

Meanwhile, as a practical fact, we are still in the scroll stage of the microfilm. The materials filmed in England by the Emergency Program are arriving at the Library of Congress in the roll form, and there is every prospect that for some time to come they will remain in roll form and be copied in roll form. The chief immediate significance of the microprint and the sheet microfilm may be to warn custodians that further developments are possible and that the acquisition of appliances and film-storage equipment might

well be kept on a hand-to-mouth basis, merely sufficing for current needs.⁹

USES OF THE MICROFILM IN THE RESEARCH LIBRARY

Even in its present form, however, the microfilm has been used long enough and widely enough to have found its distinctive functions. These are many and varied and still on the increase, as the recent development of the system of “Victory mail” has shown. For the research library there are four uses of the microfilm that promise to be outstanding. Two concern chiefly the librarian and two concern chiefly the scholar.

One of the vexing problems of the library world is what to do with newspapers, both because of their unwieldiness and because of their perishable paper. To this the microfilm is apparently the answer—an answer already pretty definitely given, whether one likes it or not.¹⁰ Less definite is the answer to the problem of the accumulation of old books of merely historical interest. These gather at an appalling rate, threatening to require the large libraries to double or treble their shelf space every two or three decades. Into this category fall also the swarms of government documents, many of which are essentially “old” and “historical” within a year or two of publication. Shall these all be unbound and filmed, a leaf at a time, after which the originals may be destroyed? This is not quite settled. Perhaps a better solution

⁹ Cf., e.g., F. W. Bobb, “Handling Microfilm at the Historical Society of Pennsylvania,” *Journal of Documentary Reproduction*, III (1940), 89-92.

¹⁰ The state of progress in this field may be judged from the article by George A. Schwegmann, Jr., “Preliminary Checklist of Newspapers on Microfilm,” *Journal of Documentary Reproduction*, IV (1941), 122-34. To Mr. Schwegmann and his staff I owe most of my information, very patiently given, regarding the photoduplicating plant and policies of the Library of Congress.

would be a national interlibrary agreement to preserve one or two copies of such works in libraries individually designated as specializing in certain fields, whereupon all other libraries might and should destroy their copies. Or, for the large libraries of an urban area, the "union warehouse" is a possible solution. This places the older and less used books in low-cost storage, from which a required item may be withdrawn for use on twenty-four hours' notice. Certainly in some form or other, along with our elaborate provisions for mass memory, we must develop facilities for a mass "forgettery."¹¹

And what of the scholar's use of the film? One of the philosophically minded commentators on these matters has recently observed: "The advantage of microphotography is its cheapness with respect to the single demand; of books, their cheapness with respect to large editions."¹² Now "cheapness with respect to the single demand" points directly to research scholarship. Two fields of research, in particular, have many books for which the demands come singly and at long intervals. One of these is abstract science; the other, the source materials for history, especially of the medieval period. The severe specialization of modern science produces many studies of interest only to a small number of investigators in the same field. In such a case the author may publish a notice or an abstract of his work in a suitable journal and file the complete study with such an organization as the American Documen-

tation Institute, which will then supply a film copy to any interested person at moderate cost.¹³

Another field to which the film is particularly well adapted is the collection of historical source material, especially for the Middle Ages and the Renaissance. For this era the records of civilization are chiefly in manuscript form. The most important of them are in the national and university libraries of Europe, Asia, and America, and the historian who wishes to study them must travel to the place where they are or secure some kind of photographic reproduction. Within the last half-century large collections of facsimiles of such manuscripts have been brought together in America—some by individuals, others by institutions or organizations. Many, especially those stressing the artistic or calligraphic side of manuscript study, are in the form of photographs. It is true that the black-and-white photograph loses all the color effects of medieval manuscript illumination and that even color photography has not until recently done it full justice. It is a fact that any serious student of such matters must sooner or later examine the originals with his own eyes. Nevertheless, such collections as the Frick Art Reference Library in New York, with some fifty thousand photographs of separate miniatures and illuminations, show what photography can do for this branch of medieval studies.

Other facsimiles of manuscripts have been assembled not for the decorations but

¹¹ Cf. M. L. Raney, "A Capital Truancy," *Journal of Documentary Reproduction*, III (1940), 83-88; M. F. Tauber, "Use of Microphotography in University Libraries," *Journal of Documentary Reproduction*, IV (1941), 150-57.

¹² Julian P. Boyd, in a letter of July 23, 1940, to the Librarian of Congress regarding the Washington Conference of June 5 and 6, 1940.

¹³ For other similar undertakings see E. B. Power, "Microfilm and the Publication of Doctoral Dissertations," *Journal of Documentary Reproduction*, V (1942), 37-44; C. W. Garrison, "Microfilm Publication and Social Science Scholars," *Journal of Documentary Reproduction*, V (1942), 45-48. It is well known that under war conditions one of the chief instruments for scientific periodical research is the microfilm.

for the reading matter. Where the chief object of a collection is the simple reproduction of legible texts, it is customary to employ either photostats or films. The Modern Language Association's series of reproductions, deposited at the Library of Congress and now numbering more than eight hundred volumes, started out with photostats, at an average cost of two or three hundred dollars for each item copied. Since 1938 almost all additions to the collection have been in the form of films, and even allowing for the making of duplicate copies as insurance against loss or damage, the saving has helped considerably to pile up a surplus in the purchasing fund. Individual scholars by scores, if not by hundreds, have assembled photostats or films for the purpose of some special investigation and often have subsequently deposited them in a library. Sometimes the library has made an entry for them in its catalog, but probably oftener not. No systematic check list of the American-owned photographs, photostats, and films of medieval and Renaissance manuscripts has ever been drawn up, though its desirability is evident and several attempts have been made.¹⁴

BACKGROUND OF THE EMERGENCY MICROCOPYING PROGRAM

Of the collections of films for the use of American scholars one of the most significant was undertaken in 1941 as a war emergency measure. Behind it lay a considerable period of hesitation, uncertain-

ty, debate, and experimentation. For example, in 1939 Dr. Vernon D. Tate, chief of the Division of Photographic Archives and Research in the National Archives, raised the question whether the items listed in the *Census of Medieval and Renaissance Manuscripts in the United States and Canada* might not be copied on microfilm and used as a trading point in securing systematic runs of manuscripts from the great European libraries. First, would the American owners be likely to consent to the filming of their holdings? My own impression was that most of the private owners would consent but that a few of the larger institutions might decline unless governmental pressure were brought to bear. Assuming that some 80 or 90 per cent of the American-owned material were put on film, could one then approach the British Museum, the Bibliothèque Nationale, and the rest and offer to each a copy of the film of the American manuscripts in exchange for the privilege of filming the manuscripts owned by that library? The presumption was that American funds would be provided for both the American and the European parts of the work. This was one of the most ambitious suggestions of the sort ever made. Whether it was feasible or not is impossible to say, for the outbreak of war in Poland prevented its ever being followed up.¹⁵

On June 5 and 6, 1940, under the joint sponsorship of the American Council of Learned Societies and the Library of Congress, a "Conference on Microcopying Materials for Research in Foreign Depositories" was held in Washington, D.C. Three notable results followed. The first was the appointment of a Continuation Committee on Microfilm,

¹⁴ The *Union List of Microfilms*, put out by the Philadelphia Bibliographical Center and Union Library Catalogue in 1942, is largely devoted to printed materials, though it includes the collection of the Modern Language Association (for the first supplement see n. 18 below). An admirable summary of the need for a central list and of other similar matters is given by Irvin Stewart, "Microphotography for Scholarly Purposes," *Journal of Documentary Reproduction*, IV (1941), 44-52.

¹⁵ Cf. W. J. Wilson, "Medieval and Renaissance Manuscripts in America," *Catholic Bookman*, IV (1941), 257-59.

which on January 30, 1941, became a standing committee of the American Council of Learned Societies, with the designation of Committee on Microcopying Materials for Research. Still later this became a joint committee of the four councils most naturally interested in the matter, namely, the National Research Council, the American Council on Education, the American Council of Learned Societies, and the Social Science Research Council. The second notable result of the conference was the establishment at the Library of Congress, largely through the recommendations of Mr. Julian P. Boyd, librarian of Princeton University, of an Experimental Division of Library Cooperation. The third result was the appropriation by the Rockefeller Foundation of thirty thousand dollars for the microcopying of research materials. The American Council of Learned Societies was made the administrator of this fund, later increased by an additional hundred thousand dollars, and the resulting films were to become the property of the Library of Congress. When work began, early in 1941, the international situation had so far deteriorated that the program was confined to Great Britain. No official christening seems to have taken place, but the enterprise has recently come to be known as the War Emergency Program for Microcopying Research Materials in Britain.¹⁶

INCEPTION AND PROGRESS OF THE PROGRAM IN BRITAIN

Instead of attempting to film the contents of any particular library or of any

collection in a library, it was decided to make a selection. American historians in various fields—medicine, law, science, music, medieval literature, English monasticism, and others—were asked to submit want-lists of such manuscripts, rare books, and archival materials as they particularly desired to see. These were submitted to a subcommittee on selection, of which Dr. Herbert A. Keller was chairman. The requests stand in a file of approximately ten thousand cards, now located at the library of the McCormick Historical Association, in Chicago. They are arranged by the name of the depository library and the local designating number of the manuscript or book. Each card is marked to show what has been selected, what ordered, and what received. University Microfilms, which is doing the filming, assigns to each approved item an L.C. order number, and by this the order is identified during all the stages of the work.

The program, while designed incidentally to serve American scholars, was thought of from the start as an attempt to rescue from possible destruction certain of the literary treasures of England. Speed was important. Not all the content of British libraries could be filmed. Selection of some sort was imperative, but no exhaustive checking was possible. If a general check list of American-owned photographs, photostats, and films of European manuscripts had been in existence, the want-lists would have been compared with that to avoid duplication. There was no such list and no time to make one—itself a long and formidable task. But search was made at the Library of Congress in order to avoid duplicating items owned by the Modern Language Association or found among the two million or more facsimiles made by Project A, the program begun over

¹⁶ Cf. D. H. Daugherty, "The Current Microcopying Program in England," *Journal of Documentary Reproduction*, IV (1941), 207-11. Dr. Daugherty is chiefly responsible for the name by which the program is at present known. This was developed in a series of conversations in the summer of 1942.

ten years ago for the copying of European manuscripts bearing on American history.

By August, 1942, it was estimated that 242 rolls of film had been made. Only one small shipment had been sunk, but there were various delays en route and only 68 rolls had actually been turned over to the Library of Congress. What has arrived so far has consisted almost entirely of manuscripts, ranging from about the tenth to the seventeenth century. There is one printed book represented. The rolls contain on an average about ten manuscripts apiece. Of the rolls so far received, all but three have been copied onto positive film by University Microfilms, and the positive has been deposited at the University of Michigan. This forms a valuable insurance against damage or loss. The chief collections on which work has been done are those of the British Museum, the Public Record Office, and the Bodleian Library. Some work has been done also at Cambridge.

Progress has not been so rapid as might have been hoped. Labor suited to the task has been hard to secure and of uncertain quality. Library service under wartime conditions is slow, and the competition for photographic supplies is keen. Already, however, enough material has been filmed and sent to this country to present the Library of Congress and the American Council of Learned Societies with a series of practical problems. How shall the films be handled and stored? What sort of lists or indexes shall be published? Shall catalog cards be printed and distributed? How extensively shall the items be cataloged? What kinds of service in connection with them shall be offered to the public and particularly to scholars?

SERVICING OF THE FILMS AT THE LIBRARY OF CONGRESS

We may, in Aristotelian fashion, begin with the purposes aimed at, since these will largely determine everything else that may be done. Two forms of service are contemplated. For readers who come to the Library of Congress and ask to see these films, a Microfilm Reading Room has been established in one section of the Rare Book Room. Here reading machines are available, and a skilled attendant assists the reader in the use of the equipment. Not all scholars are mechanically minded, and a few accidents are to be expected. Some films will be scratched or scorched by inept handling, and more rarely some part of a reading machine may even be injured. It has been suggested that the original negative films ought to be used only for the purpose of making positive copies and that thereafter the negative should be stored and the positive employed by readers. This would protect the negative from careless injury. But the making of an extra copy throughout at six cents a foot would amount to something like twenty or twenty-five thousand dollars for this project as a whole.

Is this expense justified? Opinion divides sharply. Films, it is true, are rather delicate and take up scratches easily, and yet their fragility can be exaggerated. They will stand a good deal of punishment and still be perfectly legible to anyone accustomed to their use. For advanced students of miniature painting, of calligraphy, of bookbinding, and the like, a film is not satisfactory in any case, except in the preliminary stages of research; but for a scholar who desires simply to read a text continuously for its content, even a somewhat battered film will usually serve. In the present case the

negative film, while surely valuable, is not irreplaceable. A positive copy has already been taken off by the photographer, and, as far as is known, the originals are still in existence. If word should ever come that the originals had been destroyed, a positive copy should undoubtedly be made at once, and all the negatives stored. Unless and until that happens, the expense of an extra copy does not seem justified. Such accidents as may occur are remediable and cannot begin to equal the cost of a complete run of positives.

To keep accidents at a minimum a set of printed instructions and warnings might well be handed to every patron of the Microfilm Reading Room. The librarian in charge ought probably to attend personally to the threading of films into the machine, at least until a reader has been under observation for some time. Watchfulness, tact, and a patient effort to instruct will eventually educate readers in the methods of mechanized scholarship and so reduce the number of casualties to films and machines. Such as still occur may simply be charged as an item in operating expense.

The second service which the Library of Congress intends to offer is directed to the needs of out-of-town scholars. To these it is planned to sell positive copies at moderate cost. The established rate is six cents a foot, with a minimum charge of one dollar for each piece of film handled. The reason for a minimum charge is easily explained. The film for an ordinary manuscript or book is not long—seldom more than forty or fifty feet, often much less. A positive copy of such a strip is not made as a separate operation. The 35-millimeter film is a standard product in the moving-picture industry and is handled on a mass-production basis. The

machines used at the Library of Congress to print and process positive copies are capable of running off twelve thousand feet or more of film in an eight-hour day, the film advancing continuously at a speed of about thirty-two feet a minute. Virtually the whole process—exposure, developing, fixing, washing, drying—is automatic. The minimum practicable length of film for continuous operation is a thousand feet, but the machine is seldom started for a run of less than three or four thousand feet. In such an operation the necessary handling, machine adjustment, etc., is almost as great for a five-foot piece of film as for a fifty-foot piece.

THE INDIVIDUAL VOLUME AS THE OPERATING UNIT

The films produced by the present Emergency Program are coming to the Library of Congress in hundred-foot (rarely two-hundred-foot) rolls. Shall these be kept as they are, or shall they be cut into shorter lengths, each representing a separate manuscript or printed book? From the beginning of the enterprise it seems to have been the intention to cut them. If any reason—as, for example, the destruction of the originals in the British Isles—should make it advisable to recopy the entire collection, it would manifestly be better to have all the negatives in long rolls. As a matter of fact, some custodians of films have made the hundred-foot roll the norm and are accustomed to splice together shorter items until approximately that length is attained. In the large improved reading machines this is not unsatisfactory. It is not much trouble, once the film is threaded in, to run forward to any desired frame. And, of course, as far as the storage is concerned, it is easier to have ten

or twelve items on one reel than to have ten or twelve reels. In fact, for dead storage the thousand-foot roll would be best.

Storage in a safe place is certainly one of the objects of the present program, but it is not the sole object or, perhaps, the chief one. One of its most important purposes is to supply copies of individual manuscripts or of rare books to scholars. This will ultimately require the cutting of hundred-foot lengths. Happily, the photographer has foreseen this need and has prepared for each manuscript or book a placard, technically called an "identification target," giving in large letters the name of the author, the title, the owning library, the local number if the item is a manuscript, and the serial order number of the item in this program. The target is photographed on the film where the item begins and again where it ends. Between items there is a reasonable space left blank. The lettering on the target is large enough to be read, even in the film, without magnification. When the items have been separated, it is not intended that any further subdivision shall be made. A scholar desiring a selected portion will, with possible exceptions in extraordinary cases, be obliged to purchase a film copy of the entire work. On the other hand, to secure a particular manuscript or book he will not be obliged to purchase an entire hundred-foot roll. The individual volume will be the unit of purchase.

The films have not yet been cut, but when and if they are, then the problem of "leaders and trailers" will arise. These are pieces of blank film—or sometimes waste film—attached at the beginning and the end to facilitate threading into a reading or a printing machine. A reading machine needs a leader of about eighteen inches to run from the supply to the take-up spool. A printing machine needs a

leader of about twice that length. It is not necessary to expose new film for this purpose. The industry is able to supply unsensitized "leader stock" at a considerably cheaper rate. But shall the film for each separate manuscript or book be fitted in advance with a leader and a trailer as part of the routine processing, or shall this be postponed until an item is called for, either for reading or for recopying? Probably the latter, since with proper equipment splicing is a fairly short and simple operation.

With the nature of the copying process clearly in mind, anyone will see why an order for a part of a volume is out of the question. In such a case it would not be possible to pick up the entire roll and send it without special inspection to the photoduplicator. Rather, it would be necessary for someone who could read the manuscript to put it into a reading machine, determine the precise portion wanted, cut out or specially mark that part of the film, send it to be copied, and later, if it was cut, splice it back into the main film again. Such handling would manifestly be more expensive than the straight mechanical copying of the whole of a thousand-page book. Also, there is seldom room between frames for any such process of cutting and resplicing without mutilation of the film at that point.¹⁷ If only a few pages are needed, it will be necessary to have enlargements printed on paper, at a cost about the same as for photostats.

BUSINESS ASPECTS OF THE PROGRAM

In supplying film copies of research materials to scholars, the Library of Congress is evidently undertaking a kind of publishing business, with the photodupli-

¹⁷ On this point Dr. Tate observes: "I would absolutely refuse to cut and splice any master-negative in the National Archives for this purpose."

cator acting the part of the printer. The purchasing side of the business is highly individualized. Orders as a rule come in singly, and an edition consists of one copy only. The producing side, on the other hand, is a machine process operating on a mass basis. It has seemed advisable in the foregoing discussion to explain this in some detail in order to avoid misunderstandings as to costs. These are the standard prices at the Library of Congress for all such work. The minimum charge for a positive copy is one dollar. The basic rate is six cents a foot. The leader and trailer, however, are included in the footage and must be charged for, even though they come out blank in the positive copy. This is really a sort of handling charge applicable to each job. In effect, it means that a minimum job, two pages to a frame, will have a net cost of about six-tenths of a cent per page of reading matter, whereas a thousand-page job will come to about four-tenths of a cent. In the interests of definiteness it would be desirable to calculate in advance a dollar-and-cents charge for each individual item and to publish this price with each printed check list, always subject to variations in the cost of material and labor. But these fixed prices would naturally not appear on the catalog cards, if any, that may be drawn up for the films.

In the first supplement to the *Union List of Microfilms* appears a check list of 537 manuscripts already represented at the Library of Congress by films of the Emergency Program.¹⁸ From a business

¹⁸ Philadelphia Bibliographical Center and Union Library Catalogue, "Union List of Microfilms: Supplement 1 (1942)" (Philadelphia, 1943), pp. 25, 32, 88, 163-64. This has appeared while the present article was going through the press. The list covers the contents of 78 rolls. Meanwhile Miss Faustine Dennis, who has charge of the material, informs me that a number of additional rolls have arrived at the Library of Congress.

point of view, if from no other, such a list is essential. If the undertaking is to serve its purpose, the materials available for reading or recopying must be made known to the small but select clientele that will be interested in them. The list is arranged by owning library (in this case the Bodleian, the British Museum, Cambridge University Library, and the Public Record Office), by the name of the collection or class, and by the designating number. No authors and titles are given. In the great majority of cases the catch titles used in the original want-lists and copied on the photographer's target would have served for the check list as well and would have added a certain life and interest to it. In a few instances, however, they were inadequate. Occasionally a scholar had asked for a composite or miscellaneous manuscript in order to study a particular portion of it and had used the title of this portion as if it applied to the whole. Again, "Medical Treatises" is not too satisfactory a title, and "Latin Manuscript" even less so. Since these and similar cases do occur, it has been judged best to exclude authors and titles from the check list entirely. After all, they would add nothing of value for the chief users of the list, namely, the scholars who have already requested these very manuscripts by number.

To the unaccustomed eye a mere array of numbers may seem barren and incomplete, but scholars accustomed to working in the field will scan this check list eagerly. They are acquainted with the somewhat complicated numbering systems of the European libraries. These are extremely diverse. Comparatively few of them are strictly logical arrangements based on the nature and contents of the manuscripts. Some perpetuate the name of an early donor, some are inventory

lists arranged by language, some are mere accession lists. Nevertheless, arbitrary and illogical though they often are, these local numbers have become established by use and have acquired something of the quality of individual names, making each manuscript stand out almost like a personality. Not merely in its own home is it known by its designating number. It is described in printed catalogs under that number. It is referred to in scholarly discussions by that number. In the want-lists of the Emergency Program it has been requested by that number. The photographer has called for it by that number and has filmed that number on his target at the beginning and end of the roll or strip. Any scholar desiring to use the film of the manuscript will call for it by that number and will mention the author or title, if at all, only as an extra precaution for accuracy.

This may be an appropriate place to observe that, while the Emergency Program has its business side, it is far from being a business enterprise. If it were, there is a succession of charges and fixed costs that would have to be prorated and figured into the price of copies. As it is, the ultimate consumer pays the photoduplicator, and everything else is forgotten. The services of the Library of Congress as cataloger and custodian are paid for out of appropriated funds. The expense of filming in Britain has been subsidized by the Rockefeller Foundation. The British institutions have made the books and manuscripts available without charge. The services of those early collectors who, for the most part, bought these literary treasures in the open market and then gave them to the institutions—these services are hardly thought of or remembered except as the collections sometimes bear the names of the

donors. It is well that these various expenses are not all counted up and added, like the accumulating charges on a baggage check, to the final reckoning. If they were, the price would be so high that there would be no ultimate consumer.

RELATIONS TO THE M.L.A. SERIES AND TO PROJECT A

Already the question has been raised as to whether this collection shall be kept together permanently as a distinct group or shall be merged with other collections of films and photostats into one or more large series. The Modern Language Association, for example, has brought to the Library of Congress copies of 854 rare books and manuscripts, of which 444 are on films.¹⁹ The material is of the same general nature as that which the Emergency Program is copying. Care has been taken to see that the two series do not duplicate each other, but they definitely complement each other. Shall they be kept separate or be merged? Similarly, Project A, sometimes known as the European Mission, has some two million pages of material from European archives bearing on American history.²⁰ Part of the

¹⁹ For a short-title list, complete to January 1, 1942, see Modern Language Association of America, *Reproductions of Manuscripts and Rare Printed Books* (New York, 1942), 36 pp. The present custodian of the collection, Miss Dorothy S. Vastine, has kindly supplied carbon copies of a list of additions to November, 1942.

²⁰ Concerning Project A and related materials, the chief of the Division of Manuscripts, Dr. St. George L. Sioussat, writes me: "The acquisitions of reproductions of manuscripts in British archives, libraries, and other depositories are (1) enumerated on manuscript inventory lists available in the Division, whether derived from the operations of Project A or otherwise, and (2) summarized in the successive annual reports (printed) of the Librarian of Congress. Miss Grace Gardner Griffin has practically completed (now in manuscript) a comprehensive *Descriptive Guide to the Collection of Reproductions of Manuscripts in British Archives, Libraries, and Other*

material consists of transcripts, part of photostats, part of films, and part of enlarged prints made from films. In the want-lists for the Emergency Program there are considerable runs of archival material requested for the express purpose of filling in gaps in the previous holdings of Project A. When this material arrives, shall it be added to Project A or be retained with the rest of the Emergency Program?

No easy and sweeping answer can be made to this question of dispersing collections. Most large institutions at one time or another have accepted gifts of books, manuscripts, or art objects under a pledge to maintain them as separate groups. At times, even in the absence of any pledge, a collection is so distinct and unified that no one would think of breaking it up. These, nevertheless, are the exceptions; the tendency is all the other way. In general, every research library is organized and classified topically according to content and subject matter, not according to the sources from which its materials have come. And this, it would seem, should be the governing principle for films quite as much as for books, except as the nature of the film or some other special circumstance interferes.

In the case of the Modern Language Association there is such a circumstance. The material is not technically the property of the Library of Congress but is deposited there on what is regarded as a practically permanent basis. It is so nearly the library's property that some three or four hundred of the earlier items have been regularly cataloged on printed cards, though they have not been assigned call numbers. Nevertheless, the

collection has thus far been kept as a unit in the Manuscript Division. Its items are numbered sequentially as received—802 of them to date in the "regular series" and 52 in an "additional series" sponsored by the American Council of Learned Societies. Each series contains both manuscripts and printed books, numbered indiscriminately as they happen to arrive. Each series includes both photostats and microfilms, the latter being indicated by the addition of the letter *F* to the designating number. As a matter of fact, the collection illustrates most of the difficulties and most of the problems that the Emergency Program is likely to encounter, plus the complicating question of ownership. The officials of the Modern Language Association would have to be consulted, at least as a matter of courtesy if not as a matter of right, before the films and photostats could be rearranged and scattered among the films and photostats of other collections. On the other hand, the materials of Project A and of the Emergency Program belong outright to the Library of Congress, which is free to arrange them as the nature of the material may seem to require.

Although the M.L.A. series and the collection assembled by Project A both contain large quantities of manuscript material, they are fundamentally of different types. As has often been observed, manuscripts in general fall into two large groups. On the one hand, there are formal or book manuscripts, that is to say, connected discourses and treatises on any imaginable subject—literary, historical, scientific, or what not else. On the other hand, there are informal or occasional manuscripts, such as letters, deeds, ecclesiastical documents, and all manner of public and family archives. The types, it is true, are at times hard to distinguish; and yet the fundamental division be-

Depositories Contained in the Division of Manuscripts, Library of Congress. This guide is classified according to archival provenance and by libraries or other depositories."

tween the two is clear. They are sometimes spoken of as literary manuscripts and archival manuscripts, respectively.

Now, at the Library of Congress one of the chief centers for archival material is the Division of Manuscripts. Here are not merely the records of the Continental Congress and the Constitutional Convention but also the papers of a great many of the presidents of the United States and numerous important collections of personal papers. It is not by accident, therefore, that the vast archival accumulations of Project A have always been located in the Manuscript Division. They belong there. And there also will logically belong any archival manuscripts that may be brought in on the films of the Emergency Program.

On the other hand, its medieval and Renaissance manuscripts, of which in the course of the years the Library of Congress has acquired a very respectable number, were long ago transferred to the Rare Book Collection. To that same repository the facsimiles and films of the Modern Language Association, consisting principally of books and of book manuscripts, are also presumably destined to

go, although as yet the transfer has not been accomplished. This seems to establish a nucleus to which the book manuscripts represented on films of the Emergency Program might naturally gravitate. For a long time to come, it is true, this collection seems likely to be kept together; and yet the possibility of segregation on logical grounds ought perhaps to be held in mind, in order that decisions now taken may not render it difficult or impossible in the future.²¹

²¹ The original report, which I submitted at the end of 1942, discussed also the classification, numbering, and storage of microfilms of both printed books and manuscripts. The discussion did not seem to forward very much the solution of those problems, and I have therefore omitted it here. Meanwhile, the Processing Department of the Library of Congress, in its Department Memorandum No. 23, issued February 17, 1943, has dealt with several of the problems and has included this provision: "Classification is limited to the letters of the classification schedule, with a consecutive numbering of the films within each group." This is an important decision. It applies, of course, to films of printed books, since the Library of Congress has not as yet included manuscripts in its public catalog. The arrangement will allow filmed material on a given subject to be transferred to the corresponding section or division of the library if that should later seem desirable, while for the time being it saves the expense involved in the complete classification of a mass of quite difficult material.

SOURCES FOR THE STUDY OF AMERICAN COLLEGE LIBRARY HISTORY, 1800-1876

NATHANIEL STEWART

AMONG the unexplored areas in American librarianship is the history of college libraries in the United States from the end of the eighteenth century to the beginnings of modern library literature. A study of the college library during the Colonial period to 1800 was undertaken by Mr. Shores several years ago, and the role of the college library since 1876 has been followed rather closely and is well documented; but the period 1800-1876 has remained virtually untouched to this day. This is fortunate, indeed, for the student undertaking research in this area, since there are neither historical myths to dispel, nor academic chicanery to combat, nor serious frauds to counteract.

For a real understanding of the history of college libraries in this country one must contend with a tradition, long entrenched in the library profession, that the year 1876 marks the genesis of American librarianship. I prefer the position that 1876 represents a renaissance in American librarianship from a sort of chrysalis existence. College librarianship offers striking testimony in support of this position. With a considerable background prior to 1800 and a series of definite developments during the ensuing seventy-five years, college librarianship gives evidence of emerging from a dormant period to begin its real growth with the renaissance years.

A search of the literature of the field reveals several guideposts. In the order of chronological significance, Charles Coffin Jewett's *Notices of Public Li-*

braries in the United States (1851) represents the first valuable treatise. As librarian of the Smithsonian Institution, Mr. Jewett undertook this ambitious investigation "with the plan of rendering the Smithsonian Institution a centre of bibliographical knowledge." Jewett's performance still stands as a landmark in collecting library statistics, despite some obvious deficiencies. One is the absence of a summary report indicating trends and influences; also, it is to be regretted that the report was poorly edited. Rhees's *Manual of Public Libraries* followed in 1859. Here, too, only the statistics themselves are of value. A third significant guide to the progress of libraries is Edward Edwards' *Memoirs of Libraries* (1859). A man definitely in advance of his times, Edwards was responsible for presenting the clearest picture of the library in Europe and in the United States. Often regarded as "crude and hasty in many parts," the work of Edwards has never been accorded due recognition. He has been seriously underrated, but the history of librarianship may some day reveal him as a man of great vision who foresaw the role of the library in twentieth-century society more vividly than many of our pioneers. Finally, the immensely valuable report on *Public Libraries in the United States of America, Their History, Condition, and Management* (1876), presented by the United States Bureau of Education, constitutes a genuine terminus for the period under consideration and the beginning of a new epoch in American librarianship.

The merit and far-reaching influence of the "Report of 1876" have made it so cardinal a reference for the student of library economy that an analysis of its worth would be superfluous here.

An examination of periodical literature discloses but one worthy source—W. N. C. Carlton's article, "College Libraries in the Mid-nineteenth Century."¹ No explanation seems adequate for the almost unbelievable paucity of library literature on the subject. Although brief and sketchy, "College Libraries in the Mid-nineteenth Century" must be regarded as a sober, well-directed résumé of college libraries of that period. For the first time there is a clear representation of the important indices of college librarianship, such as size and extent of the collections, housing, finances, classification and catalogs, rules and regulations governing college libraries, and student society libraries. Here is presented for the first time a cross-section of the typical nineteenth-century college library.

It is hardly possible to uncover detached, objective accounts of the college library as a definite unit. The chief key to the study of the college library during the early and middle nineteenth century lies in the intimate, warm, almost affectionate descriptions to be found in the college histories as reported by scholars; for example, the government publications series, "Contributions to American Educational History." For a number of years—1887-1903—these studies appeared as "Circulars of Information" issued by the United States Bureau of Education. Their particular significance lies in the wealth of institutional history disclosed. Intimate episodes in the life of the library, its trials and tribulations, its growth and development—all are set

forth. Further, in a number of instances the studies reveal rather fully the status of the library in the college during the period. Among the worthy publications in this group may be mentioned L. S. Merriam's *Higher Education in Tennessee*, G. G. Bush's *History of Higher Education in Massachusetts*, James A. Woodburn's *Higher Education in Indiana*, W. F. Allen and D. E. Spencer's *Higher Education in Wisconsin*, and Colyer Meriwether's *History of Higher Education in South Carolina*.

There are many other sources which contain valuable information concerning some particular aspect of this historical problem. A brief summary of some of the most potentially lucrative of these follows.

Donald G. Tewksbury's *The Founding of American Colleges and Universities before the Civil War* is an indispensable reference, most illuminating for its analysis of the frontier college and "denominational imperialism" in the church-related colleges on our successive frontiers. Griffin's *Writings on American History, 1906—* (1908—; since 1918 published as supplements to the annual reports of the American Historical Association) is important as a bibliographic contribution for local areas and institutions, and Dorothy Plum's *A Bibliography of American College Library Administration, 1899-1926* is even more significant in this connection. A third bibliography of some merit is *College Libraries in the United States*, compiled by Hugh Williams in 1899. The proceedings and annual papers of the state and regional historical societies are worthy of examination.

The articles by Montgomery Schuyler in the *Architectural Record* from 1809 through 1912 are among the best discussions of library architecture, particularly

¹ *Library Journal*, XXXII (1907), 479-96.

for the early decades. Growoll's *Book-Trade Bibliography in the United States in the Nineteenth Century* is most valuable for its material allied to the study of college libraries—information relating to books printed in the nineteenth century, publishers, bibliographers, and the book market. Comparably, among the very important recent works are McMurtrie's *History of Printing in the United States* and Lehmann-Haupt's *The Book in America*; both have added immeasurably to this neglected chapter in American library history.

The *Reports of the Society for the Promotion of Collegiate and Theological Education in the West* (1844—) constitute a veritable storehouse of information incident to the frontier colleges and their plans for library facilities. Of the periodicals of that period, the *American Journal of Education* (1855-82) and *DeBow's Review* (1820-67) are quite valuable. Evangeline Thurber's unpublished study, "The Library of the Land-Grant College, 1862-1900,"² may be regarded as a meritorious addition to the literature of the field; add also Miss Satterfield's "History of College Libraries in Georgia."³ C. F. Thwing includes a brief summary chapter on the college library in his *History of Higher Education*; at best, however, it is to be regarded as a mediocre secondary source. Other satisfactory secondary works in the history of education are the books of Cubberley, Knight, Ten Brook, and Dexter. Frank Luther Mott's excellent study of the *History of American Magazines* often throws light on the picture of college library life and suggests the role of the college library in this respect. Satisfactory use might be made

of *Philanthropy in the History of American Higher Education* by J. B. Sears, published as "United States Bureau of Education Bulletin 1922," No. 26. Louis Round Wilson's short article, "The University Libraries of Virginia, the Carolinas, and Georgia,"⁴ might be considered as a good historical sketch of the high lights of library development in those states.

Among the most important works is the unpublished study of Catharine P. Storie's "What Contribution Did the College Society Library Make to the College Library?"⁵ An examination of the role of the college literary and fraternity society libraries provides a good introduction to the story of the college library of the early and middle nineteenth century; their influence may frequently be detected even as late as the beginnings of the present century. Miss Storie's dissertation not only is a pivotal study but is sound in investigative approach and in procedure.

Finally, records and documents of individual colleges constitute a rich source. Minutes of the faculty library committee, where they are not confidential, may be used to great advantage. However, in most cases these committees existed only nominally, meeting once every seven or eight years when an emergency arose. Minutes of the trustees and annual reports of the president sometimes are valuable, although many hours will be spent in vain searching for the executive's interest in his library. Diaries and letters of important individuals in the life of the institution are immensely valuable—particularly the lives of donors and other interested persons who watched the insti-

² Unpublished M.S. thesis, Columbia University, 1928.

³ Unpublished M.S. thesis, Columbia University, 1936.

⁴ *Bulletin of the American Library Association*, I (1907), 266-70.

⁵ Unpublished M.S. thesis, Columbia University, 1938.

tution grow from infancy. Alumni publications and memoirs of alumni are generally excellent sources, though at times clouded with sentimentality. Written and printed library catalogs often reflect the character of the book collections. Annual reports of librarians are most valuable, particularly where the officer has had keen interest in the library. Library rules and regulations often indicate some phases of the philosophy and conduct of college libraries; bookplates often indicate similar interests.

In addition to the more or less direct sources already mentioned, such as library records and institutional accounts, there are at least three other types of source material that should be explored. First, one might study library history as reflected in the accounts of travelers in the United States from 1800 to 1876. Allan Nevins, it will be recalled, edited a social history of America as recorded by British travelers. Learned and acute observers have been found among travelers in America. Zincke, Towle, Harriet Martineau, and Isaac Fidler have recorded clear impressions of their voyages in this country. Sir Charles Lyell's account of his varied travels is enlightening, as are the accounts of such travelers as George Combe, James Buckingham, Edward S. Abdy, Jane L. Mesick, and others. A careful examination of Reuben Thwaites's *Early Western Travels* should yield a rich harvest of information relative to education, literacy, and the influence of libraries and higher education. Many foreign travelers visited America during the early and middle nineteenth century and recorded their impressions and observations. What were their impressions of American college life? History scholars are keenly aware of the importance of James Bryce's *American Commonwealth* and Olmsted's *Journey in*

the Seaboard Slave States; conceivably the collected impressions and experiences of native and foreign travelers during this period might contribute toward the knowledge of library history.

A second type of material also deserves examination. Among the communal and intellectual contributions of immigrant groups to the successive western frontiers, there must have been an influence upon the nature of college life, upon the library, upon reading as a source of personal improvement, and upon respect for books. Turner, in his studies in American history, has demonstrated quite emphatically the influence of new peoples upon the intellectual life of the frontier. Books and libraries were no doubt left behind them; but their respect for books, their desire for a more educated youth, and the interest of their literati and intelligentsia in the library suggest fields for speculation. The influence of Francis Lieber and Louis Agassiz upon college life and the role of books, for example, is immeasurable. Each, no doubt, was a potent force in organizing and shaping the course of college libraries. Hanna's and Ford's descriptions of the influence of the Scotch-Irish in American history, Faust's excellent treatise on the influence of the German element, and Sterling's account of the Jew in American history are indicative of some of the sources to be examined. What of the influence of the Welsh, the Swedes, the Norwegians, and other immigrant groups? Historians agree that the period 1800-1876 contains the very essence of frontier life, and the founding and development of libraries in the frontier college and community comprise a yet unwritten chapter. Yale, Harvard, William and Mary, and Columbia, for instance, are *not* the representative colleges of the nineteenth century, and their li-

baries are not the representative college libraries. The holdings and administration, perhaps the influence, of these institutions form part of our history, of course. However, the typical nineteenth-century college library accompanied the frontier college which sprang up overnight, survived the destruction of the Civil War, withstood real estate collapses and financial panics, maintained the faith of its community, and justified continued denominational or philanthropic support. What role did the frontier immigrant population play in the life of this representative college and its library? Historical literature today is quite adequate for a thorough search into this problem. Beard's *Rise of American Civilization*, Parrington's *Main Currents in American Thought*, Nevins' *Emergence of Modern America*, the writings of Riegel and Turner—these and many other important works should reveal much for a better understanding of the college library in the last century.

A third approach appears to be almost axiomatic on the surface; strangely enough, however, it seems to have been overlooked. I refer to the library's relative position as a result of changes on the educational scene. Several major educational movements find their origin prior to 1876, and their influence upon college libraries must have been great. Mere listing of some of these major influences is sufficiently impressive: the beginnings of land-grant colleges, the growth of manual labor and vocational colleges, women's colleges, the rise of professional schools, the antecedents of the elective system, the normal school for the training of teachers, and accelerated philanthropy. How was the status of the college library affected by these significant trends and developments?

After proper exploration along the suggested channels, the cumulative products of such research should reveal an interesting history of the American college library during the first three-quarters of the nineteenth century.

DO COLLEGES NEED REFERENCE SERVICE?

LULU RUTH REED

COLLEGE libraries have always attempted, with varying degrees of proficiency, to give some type of reference service to students. Is this necessary? And, if so, have they been successful in meeting the needs of the library clientele? It is the purpose of this study to approach the problem from the viewpoint of student performance and to consider two questions as basic to the value of the reference department in the scheme of college library organization: (1) can students use reference resources effectively and (2) do they need assistance in locating library materials? The data presented constitute analyses of replies of 464 Freshmen, 66 Sophomores, 68 Juniors, and 52 Seniors who took Form A of the author's "Test on the Use of the Library for Colleges."¹ These students represent a random sample, gathered from schools of various types and widespread geographical distribution.

In viewing student performance, we shall start with the most universally distributed of all reference tools—the unabridged dictionary. To what extent has the student actually mastered its use? Since instruction on the dictionary is given in both elementary and secondary schools, beginning as low as the third grade and continuing through senior high school,² it might be assumed that

there is no student who has not become thoroughly familiar with its various features; but analysis of student responses to five questions dealing with characteristic features of the best-known unabridged dictionaries—Webster's *New International* and the *New Standard*—shows that about 15 per cent of the students tested were not certain that synonyms are included in both, that 20 per cent or more did not understand the significance of the two keys to pronunciation in the *New Standard*, that 50 per cent or more did not understand the effect of arrangement of illustrations on their utilization, and that 20 per cent or more did not realize that the *New Standard* places the common meaning first in order to facilitate use of the definitions.

Lack of a marked progression of achievement from Freshman to Senior year is also noticeable, particularly on the question dealing with illustrations. The reply to this question necessitated an evaluation of the difference in use of material classified together in one place from that scattered through the dictionary in an alphabetical arrangement under specific words. The low scores, with those of the Seniors especially disappointing, show that students have not acquired an understanding of the effect of arrangement of material on its utilization. The results as a whole show that students have not achieved a high degree of facility in making effective use of dictionaries.

Next to the dictionary in widespread distribution in schools is the encyclopedia. Courses of study usually include

¹ For discussion of reliability and validity of the test see Lulu Ruth Reed, "A Test of Students' Competence to Use the Library" (unpublished doctoral thesis, Graduate Library School, University of Chicago, 1937). Also essential published portion under same title in *Library Quarterly*, VIII (1938), 236-83.

² *Ibid.*

some type of lessons in their use, especially in secondary schools. The test revealed the extent to which students had become familiar with special features of a group of well-known books of this type, namely, the *Americana*, *Britannica*, *Compton's*, *Nelson's*, *New International Encyclopedia*, *New International Yearbook*, and *World Book*.

Although students were able to associate the idea of a yearbook with a necrology list for a specified year better than they were able to answer correctly any of the other questions, it is surprising that the score for Seniors on this topic is so low, only 61.6 per cent having made the correct response. The scores on all other questions indicate clearly that such universally used tools as encyclopedias are inadequately understood by students.

Perhaps it is not surprising that they did not know that the *Americana* has excellent articles summarizing historical events by centuries and that they tended to select the eleventh edition of the *Britannica*, which is noted for its scholarly approach; but this bears evidence to the lack of specific knowledge of this type of reference tool. It is also significant that a large group of students selected an encyclopedia designed for younger readers. This may indicate only that there is a scarcity of reference books in secondary schools; but, if so, this affords additional proof of the necessity for some planned program of service to students in colleges.

The use of analytical indexes as supplementing the general alphabetical arrangement of topics was tested by a statement asking where to locate "information on an Arabic writer not prominent enough to be listed in the main alphabet of an encyclopedia." The results show that this type of index was not associated with the encyclopedias of which

it is characteristic. In another section of the test the value of analytical indexes was questioned by a statement reading: "A book arranged alphabetically by subjects has no need of an analytical alphabetical index of subjects." That 54.2 per cent of the Freshmen, 62.1 per cent of the Sophomores, 66.7 per cent of the Juniors, and 55.8 per cent of the Seniors made the correct response on this question indicates that they were better able to understand the underlying principle than to apply it to specific tools. This affords additional evidence of failure to acquire specific knowledge of characteristic features of reference books.

In the matter of colored plates entered under specific headings the results are slightly better, though not more than one-third of any of the groups knew the best source. The poorest showing was made on the question that tested sharply the date of information included in the several books. The question asked where information could be located telling whether a prominent English writer was still living. The tendency to select the yearbook shows that the relative up-to-dateness of the yearbook in contrast to other recently revised encyclopedias was recognized; but it also shows that few of the students knew that there is one encyclopedia that issues this type of information twice a year in contrast to the annual revision of the yearbook.

Since each of these questions tests a fundamental characteristic of arrangement or content of well-known encyclopedias, the results show a striking lack of specific knowledge of these books and an inability to associate certain types of questions with the most likely sources of information. Need of detailed instruction and more assistance in the utilization of such reference tools is clearly indicated.

Even though students may not have learned to utilize effectively the special features of particular books, it is possible that they can find their way about the reference room successfully and locate information pertinent to their problems. It is well, therefore, to ascertain whether they can associate types of questions with types of books most likely to contain the answer even though they do not possess detailed knowledge of the books. Ten questions were propounded, with five possible sources suggested for each topic, and the students were asked to select the best possible source. The questions included a variety of topics of several types, such as discussions, lists, and illustrative material, in several fields of knowledge.

With few exceptions only a small percentage of the students were able to select the most specific source, although the books listed were the most widely used and recommended reference books found in libraries. Fact books, such as those containing lists of government officials, lists of diplomats, and discussion of colleges, were the best known; pictorial material and books containing information on foreign authors were the least known. Successful performance was seldom over 50 per cent of the group.

The main tendency revealed is reliance on general reference sources. The large percentage of omissions is a further proof of the lack of knowledge of sources as related to types of questions. Since the titles were given in sufficient fullness to completely identify the book cited, the student should have been able to make the selection had he known the characteristics of the book.

Although the sources were indicated clearly, it is possible that the failures may be explained partially by the tendency of students to rely upon color of binding or position on shelves in locating

books used for reference questions instead of learning authors or titles of books. That they do not associate authors with specific books is evident from another section of the test, where the names of editors were listed and then five types of reference books given. The student was directed to indicate the editor for each type of book. The results show the almost complete failure of students to recognize books in this fashion. More than 75 per cent of the students made no attempt to make the association, and the larger portion of those that did reply were unable to make the correct response. Since all questions represent types of material frequently called for, it is evident that students have accepted material from librarians, with little thought of the specific sources involved.

Much has been said about the value of browsing, and reference departments usually subscribe to the theory of "open shelves." So, it is well to inquire how effectively the student can utilize material placed at his disposal even if he has not learned to associate types of books with types of questions or to think in terms of specific books. One section of the test listed some Dewey Decimal Classification numbers, each followed by a word or words explaining its significance, such as would appear on shelf labels in an open-shelf collection. Ten topics were listed, and the student was directed to indicate, by writing in the classification number, the broad field in which he would search for materials. In other words, he was asked to associate types of questions with the general fields to which they belong.

The first question called for material on "social life in England during the Tudor period." In the list there were two groups, "English history" and "customs and folklore," that were possible logical

responses. That 75 per cent or more of the groups were able to make the correct response shows that they are more familiar with material in the field of English history than with that in many of the other fields. It appears somewhat singular that they were more expert in associating a topic with English history than with American history, where less than 50 per cent made the correct reply. Since the latter question called for information on governmental Indian policy, it may have suggested political science rather than history. However, this shows that students had not become familiar with the fact that discussion of Indian affairs is to be found with material classed under American history rather than under political science. The failure to associate the topic "reciprocity" with political science may be due to vocabulary difficulties, for many indicated "economics" as the proper place to search for this material.

Since chemistry is usually a required subject in the Freshman or Sophomore years, the failure to associate the term "colloids" with chemistry is indicative either of serious inability to associate ideas or of failure to absorb knowledge in this field of information. That "mosques" was not associated with architecture may have been due to some religious connotation to the term. The question on "buried cities of Europe" brought out clearly the difficulty students have in locating material in the field of archeology, with less than 50 per cent making the correct response. For a topic as well known from elementary school days as the "Arthurian legends" the low percentage of correct responses suggests that students have not been very observing or else they would have known that "legends" are placed with "customs and folklore." It is possible

that the natural association of "legends" with "literature" is largely responsible for the results; but the omission of the question by as many as 26.9 per cent of the Seniors indicates a considerable amount of difficulty in associating ideas. This section of the test shows student failures in making effective use of signs that indicate general fields of information. It suggests also that whatever success they may have in locating material is due more to chance than to logical association of topics with broad fields of knowledge.

The foregoing discussion has shown that students need assistance in finding material. It is well to consider, also, possible difficulties in use of material. Several questions immediately suggest themselves. Do students know where and how to locate material within a book? Do they know how to use indexes? Do they know how to evaluate sources as to authenticity? All these considerations would have a definite bearing on any plan for reference service based on demonstrated needs of students.

Since lessons on "parts of books" are given at intervals from the third through the twelfth grades, usually in connection with English or other subjects, one would expect to find a high degree of success in utilizing prefaces, indexes, etc. While performance is fair on a few of the questions, the only one showing something approaching mastery was the one relating to the publisher. The majority of the students knew that the publisher's name appears on the title-page of a book. In general, the questions pertaining to the title-page were the ones answered most successfully. Statement of edition was less well known than publisher or copyright date.

That the functions of indexes and tables of contents are not clearly dif-

ferentiated is indicated by the responses to Question C, which asked how to locate a particular topic in a book, and Question J, which asked how to locate illustrations not listed separately. Although about 70 per cent indicated use of the index to locate particular topics within a book, as many as 17 per cent of the Seniors indicated the table of contents as the aid in locating such material. The response to J showed that only about 30 per cent of the students thought of the index in connection with unlisted illustrations, while about the same number indicated that they would consult the table of contents. Even the appendix was selected by a considerable number of students. The replies to Question F also revealed student uncertainty about indexes and tables of contents. This question asked how to locate an individual short story in an unindexed collection. Not only did 20 per cent or more of the students fail to select the table of contents as the means to locate this item but also, in spite of the word "unindexed" in the question, a number indicated the index as the source. Less than 75 per cent of the students knew that the preface gives the statement of scope of a book. About 25 per cent indicated the table of contents, though the word "statement" in the question should have suggested a part of the book containing a discussion of the purpose of the author.

Footnotes were baffling to a large part of the students. Less than 50 per cent of any class knew that this was the place to look for page references to statements cited. They tended to confuse footnotes with page references to text material in indexes, though many indicated the appendix as the place to locate such information. Bibliographies proved a lesser stumbling block, though 30.6 per cent of the Freshmen confused them with foot-

notes, and only slightly more than 75 per cent of the Seniors knew that bibliographies were the place to look for additional references. That the appendix is frequently confused with footnotes and bibliographies is shown by the responses to Question E, which asked for the name of the part of the book in which would be listed forms not included in the text. From these results it is seen that, despite efforts in secondary schools, college students do not have a thorough understanding of the bibliographical features of books or of their most effective utilization.

Although students do not differentiate sharply between indexes and tables of contents, it is possible that, given an index to use, they will find their material readily. In view of the great value of indexes to magazines, ability to use them was tested by reproducing a portion of a page from the *Readers' Guide*. Eighteen items on the page were numbered, and fifteen questions calling for the interpretation of items were listed. All that was required of the student was that he observe carefully and write the number of the correct item after the question. By this procedure the factor of memory was entirely eliminated and the student's ability to utilize material was tested directly. On only one of the fifteen questions did more than 50 per cent of the Seniors make the correct response, and on this question 40.7 per cent of the Freshmen, 47.0 per cent of the Sophomores, and 37.7 per cent of the Juniors chose the right item. On only three questions did more than 40 per cent of the Seniors make the correct response. On six more questions between 30 and 40 per cent were successful; on four others, between 20 and 30 per cent made the right choice. The remaining question was answered correctly by only 15.4 per cent of

the Seniors. The figures for the other classes are lower. In general, the results show definite lack of ability to interpret information provided in indexes.

The analysis of the several questions reveals more difficulty with bibliographical details than with other types of information—a result to be expected in view of the replies to the section devoted to the parts of books. There were also many failures in picking out authors' names and in differentiating between articles by and about a person, which shows that the situation cannot be blamed exclusively on a lack of instruction in the forms of bibliographical entry. A title reference seemed baffling to most of the students. Although there was some variation in the identification of date of issue for monthly and weekly magazines, less than 30 per cent of any of the groups was successful on either question. Only slightly better was the identification of an illustrated article. Nor was recognition of volume numbers and paging satisfactory. Less than 35 per cent were able to identify a continued article, or the symbol used to indicate that the total paging of an article was not given. Ability to identify subjects and subject references follows about the same pattern.

Besides the exercise on *Readers' Guide*, there was a similar interpretative problem on the *New York Times Index*. Specimen entries were reproduced and a list of ten questions appended. The student was to select a figure, or word, showing that he understood the information given in the index. The results show again that students have not mastered the art of reading an index and that they are particularly weak on the interpretation of symbols used to indicate location of material. They tended to confuse page, column, and section notation, and even

dates were not readily identified. On only the first two questions were more than 50 per cent of the groups successful, and in the majority of cases the figure was below 35 per cent. The relatively high degree of success on the first question may have been due to the fact that the students already knew the name of the composer of the opera *Aida* and did not have to rely on their ability to read the index correctly, for the identification of the title of a book was less successful, though second in order of correct response.

The question naturally arises as to the degree to which lack of knowledge of newspaper format may have influenced the results. The results on the part of the test relating to contents of newspapers show that students know relatively more about utilizing newspaper material than about utilizing many of the books, though certain types of information are inadequately understood. This section of the test consisted of ten statements pertaining to location of material in newspapers or to the significance of various features. The student was directed to indicate whether the statement was true or false. The least understood feature was the editorial, with less than 60 per cent of the students making the correct response. On the other questions usually 70 per cent or more knew the correct reply. In general, it would seem that the difficulty encountered in using the newspaper index cannot be attributed in any major degree to particular lack of knowledge of special features of the newspapers themselves.

A third type of indexes was also tested—indexes to material in government documents. As in other cases, the factor of memory was eliminated, and previous knowledge was not required. Specimen entries, pertaining to Yosemite National Park, were reproduced from the *Docu-*

ment Catalog, and several, pertaining to the Pan American Union *Bulletin*, were reproduced from the *Monthly Catalog of United States Documents*. Below were ten questions testing the student's ability to understand these entries. In view of the low percentage of successes on the preceding types of indexes, it is not surprising to find a lack of ability to interpret these items, and one is forced to conclude that students need instruction in the use of indexes of various kinds. Less than 20 per cent of the students were able to read the entry listing the administrative report of the National Park Service and write down "National Park Service" in response to the question, "What bureau has administrative control of Yosemite Park?" Below each of three editions of the Pan American Union *Bulletin* appeared the words "L.C. card" followed by the number. Asked to give the number for the English edition, less than 30 per cent of the students wrote down the correct number. Identification of volume and other numbers designating particular documents was even less successful.

If students are unable to read indexes effectively, it is pertinent to inquire into their ability to evaluate material placed in their hands or selected by themselves. Doubt of such ability is strengthened by the results of student attempts to evaluate authenticity of material. Five topics were listed, and below each five sources were given. The student was directed to select the most authentic and relevant source. Sources were ranked on the basis of the composite judgment of some college and public library workers' experience in dealing with the needs of students.

The five questions represented different types of information—statistical, historical, current events, and social

customs. The best response was for the statistical type; the poorest was for the historical type with coeval news interest. A large percentage of omissions was characteristic of all questions, indicating that many students felt incapable of selecting the best source. The most noticeable trends are dependence on general textbooks in contrast to more specialized sources and failure to recognize primary and secondary sources. One point of interest is the number of students who indicated fiction as the best source for some of the topics. Although the total is not large on some of the questions, the number selecting this source as the most authentic for customs in Colonial New England is large enough (22.4 per cent of the Freshmen and about 10 per cent of the other classes) to suggest that, in addition to the commendable efforts to vitalize history by use of historical fiction as collateral reading, more emphasis should be placed on the use of letters, diaries, etc., as pertinent primary materials. The extent to which diaries and biographies were selected as the most authentic source shows considerable variation for the several questions. In general, it appears that the use of biographical material is inadequately understood. The variation in the choice of newspapers as source material suggests that students have a vague idea of their use for "current" material without recognizing their value as coeval material on historical topics. In general, it appears that the students need more specific instruction in the evaluation of materials. Whether this should be done by the reference department or elsewhere is an open question, but reference librarians will recognize the bearing that this deficiency in student ability to evaluate material has on the type of assistance to be given in locating material.

It is not the purpose of this study to consider the extent to which students make use of the services now offered by college library reference departments, though the foregoing results seem to suggest either that assistance has been inadequate or that it has not been planned to meet specific needs. However, study of performance of the small group of Freshmen who had just been given a brief orientation course suggests that even a minimum amount of planned assistance tends to advance performance to that of Senior rank. In other words, by means of some definite instruction, students attained in a short time the same degree of proficiency as they acquired independently in four years of college. For example, while 25 per cent of the Freshman group as a whole identified correctly the title of an article by an author in the exercise on the *Readers' Guide*, 46.1 per cent of the Seniors and 48.3 per cent of the group of Freshmen who had received instruction were successful. Their identification of an article about an author was similarly better than other groups (65.5 per cent in contrast to 40.7 per cent for the Freshmen as a whole and 55.8 per cent for the Seniors). In practically all sections of the test the results followed the same pattern. This suggests the possibility of effective results through carefully planned programs of instruction. Naturally, in developing a plan for adequate reference service, there are factors other than student needs to be considered.

It is pertinent to the problem to examine the extent to which students understand the functions of the various departments of a library as sources of information. Student replies to a group of statements describing types of services that they might secure at a library show that they do not think specifically of the

functions of the various departments of a library. Five departments—catalog, circulation, periodical, order, and reference—were listed, and the student was directed to indicate which department he would consult for the suggested service. That they should not distinguish clearly whether to go to circulation or to reference for informal instruction in the use of the library, or for advice on books to read, is not surprising. It is probably due to the fact that in smaller libraries such services are combined at one desk. This fact in itself adds to the necessity in a large library of giving explicit instructions to students as to the places to go for certain types of services and/or providing very detailed printed guides, posters, etc., describing the services of the several departments in any library organization. It also suggests the need of study, on the part of the library, of the functional grouping of activities in the interests of effective service to its clientele. To find as many as 13.4 per cent of the Seniors indicating the reference rather than the periodical department as the source for articles in current magazines is surprising and suggests a greater degree of terminology difficulty than might be expected at that stage. For underclassmen some failure to recognize that the terms "magazines" and "periodicals" are closely allied may be a normal reaction, but the relatively large number of Seniors failing to make this association seems unusual. Just why so many students indicated the catalog department as the place to go to obtain a library card is not obvious, unless they associated the word "catalog" with "enrol." Obviously, the word "order" had some such connotation in their minds.

This study of student performance has shown specific lacks that should be con-

sidered in planning for more effective service. In summary they are:

1. Students have not acquired specific and detailed knowledge of reference tools, such as dictionaries and encyclopedias.

2. Students have not learned to associate types of questions with types of books most likely to answer those questions.

3. Students have not learned to associate authors or editors with types of material.

4. Students have not learned to associate topics with general fields of knowledge and consequently do not benefit, to a maximum degree, by labels indicating divisions of the classification scheme.

5. Students have not learned to use parts of books effectively and have in-

adequate knowledge of bibliographical features such as footnotes, bibliographies, and indexes.

6. Student interpretation of specimen entries from *Readers' Guide*, *New York Times Index*, and document indexes reveals inability to understand and locate information by means of these tools.

7. Students are not able to evaluate sources of information readily.

8. Students do not understand the functions of various library departments.

These student deficiencies suggest the advisability of more carefully planned and more adequately supported reference services and the greater use of signs, guides, and other mechanical aids to the better utilization of library materials.

A MOTION AND TIME STUDY OF A LIBRARY ROUTINE

DEAN D. BATTLES, HOWARD DAVIS, AND WILLIAM HARMS

SINCE the Industrial Revolution, when handwork began to be replaced by machine work, the problem of finding the most economical way of doing a task has occupied men's minds. Motion and time study is merely another manifestation of the same desire—a modern refinement in the trend toward greater conservation of human resources. It has been defined as

the analysis of the methods, of the materials, and of the tools and equipment used, or intended to be used, in the performance of a piece of work—an analysis carried on with the purpose of (1) finding the most economical way of doing this work; (2) standardizing the methods, materials, tools and equipment; (3) accurately determining the time required by an average worker to do this task; and (4) training the worker in the new method.¹

Time study was begun in the 1880's as a means of wage-rate setting by Frederick W. Taylor, who first enunciated the principles of scientific management.² Motion study was developed by Frank B. and Lillian M. Gilbreth as a means of improving methods.³ More recently the two types of analysis have been used together. The modern motion and time study is indebted to the Gilbreths for most of the fundamentals, including micromotion study, process charts, the lists of variables to be studied in an analysis, the breakdown of all handwork into its elementary subdivisions, and the twenty

basic laws for attaining economy of motion. Certain refinements, including the use of the high-speed motion-picture camera, have been developed recently by such representative modern authorities as Ralph M. Barnes and Herbert C. Sampter.⁴

Although, so far as the authors are aware, the application of a formal motion and time study to a library procedure has not been attempted heretofore, it does not represent a particularly revolutionary departure from library thinking. Library administrators have long been aware of the need for increased efficiency and greater economy and have profited by applying to library operations other techniques and principles developed in industry—e.g., accounting in terms of unit costs.

The present study was carried out by the authors in the Bradley Polytechnic Institute Library under the supervision of Dr. Marvin E. Mundel, an authority on motion and time study, and with the assistance and co-operation of Mr. Arthur M. McAnally, librarian. The subject for analysis was part of the circulation routine—loaning a book to a patron.

This college library, which contains about fifty-three thousand volumes, uses the one-card circulation system. The stacks are open, but many books are obtained by the presentation of a call slip at the circulation desk. In the latter case the first step in the routine of loaning a book is determining whether it is in the library.

¹ Ralph M. Barnes, *Motion and Time Study* (2d ed.; New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1940), p. 1.

² *The Principles of Scientific Management* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1911).

³ *Applied Motion Study* (New York: Sturgis & Walton, 1917).

⁴ Herbert C. Sampter, *Motion Study* (New York: Pitman Publishing Corp., 1941).

The library has at present three files of cards for books loaned: (1) a regular file of two-week charges, (2) a faculty and special-loan file, and (3) a file of books on reserve. A fourth temporary file is kept of daily charges. This means that in order to learn whether a book is in the library it may be necessary to consult all four files or even to go to the stacks; as a matter of practice, this latter method is frequently used first. Since this procedure is obviously inefficient, a simplification of the card files to enable the library worker to determine the availability of books quickly without leaving the circulation desk was recommended.

The second step in the routine is bringing the book to the desk. Arrangement of books in the stacks so that those in greatest demand are nearest the circulation desk is an important factor in reducing the time and effort expended upon this procedure. It was found that the present arrangement was planned with the aid of a rather extensive report maintained for the use of the librarian. However, information obtained from sheets designated as "Circulation Statistics," arranged by months, showed that books in the 800, 300, and 900 classes were in the greatest demand. Since these circulation statistics are simpler than the elaborate report used by the librarian and since they apparently reflect actual use more accurately, it was recommended that they be used in rearranging the stacks.

A more detailed analysis was made of the next step in the circulation routine—checking the book out to the borrower. (This is, of course, the only step involved when the borrower himself locates the book and brings it to the circulation desk.) The method employed was the micromotion analysis, or study of the

activity by minute divisions, using motion pictures. The equipment consisted of an Eastman Ciné S.P. spring-driven 16-mm. motion-picture camera, running at the rate of sixteen exposures per second; a Weston light meter; four photo-flood lamps; and a microchronometer placed on the desk where the operations were photographed, so that the time interval from the exposure of one frame to the exposure of the next was indicated on the film. (The microchronometer is a synchronous motor-driven clock with two hands. The dial is divided into one hundred equal spaces. The large hand makes twenty revolutions per minute, and the small hand two revolutions per minute.)

After the operation was photographed, the film was run through a motion-picture projector equipped with a remote control permitting the film to be run at various speeds or to be reversed or stopped for more careful study of certain parts of the picture. The motions of the library assistant recorded on the film were broken down into therbligs,⁵ and a tabulation was made of the time required for completing each therblig, as measured by the microchronometer. From this tabulated analysis a "simo chart" (simultaneous motion chart) was prepared. Simo charts have parallel columns for the two hands, divided into uniform time-units. For each hand a brief verbal designation of each therblig is paralleled by a narrow column filled in with various colors indicating particular types of movement; for example, yellow is used to indicate an idle hand, or time wasted when one hand is waiting for the

⁵ The term "therblig" ("Gilbreth" spelled backward) was coined by the Gilbreths to designate any one of the elementary subdivisions of a cycle of motions—"search," "select," "grasp," "assemble," etc.

other to complete some task. The chart thus shows graphically the operations performed by each hand and the time required for each operation.

The waste time and motion revealed by the simo chart were analyzed in terms of the equipment and procedures used. Each book in this library has a bookplate on the inside of the front cover. For that reason, although the pocket for the borrower's card was on the front flyleaf, the due-date slip had formerly been placed inside the inside back cover. It was therefore necessary to turn to both the front and the back in order to check out the book. The present librarian had started a rearrangement of this system, placing the due-date slip on the back flyleaf and the card pocket on the inside of the back cover. This represented a considerable improvement, as revealed by a comparison of the simo charts of the old and the revised methods; but it resulted in one hand's doing most of the work while the other remained idle—the left hand simply supported the book, while the right hand removed the card from the pocket, handed it to the borrower for signing, stamped the due-date slip, and placed the card in file. It was suggested that the due-date slip be placed on the inside of the back cover and the card pocket on the back flyleaf, as near the top of the page as possible. This arrangement permits the left hand to slide the card out of the pocket and hand it to the borrower while the right hand is occupied in stamping the due-date slip. The book can then be handed to the borrower with the left hand and the card received from him with the right hand and placed in the file.

The cards now used in the library have square corners. The film analysis revealed that much time was lost inserting

the card into the file or into the book pocket when the book was returned because the square corners demanded precise placement. It was recommended that the corners of the cards be slightly rounded to facilitate placing them in the files and in the card pockets.

The date stamps used are of the type which are affixed to the pencil of the library worker. It was noted that the stamp was placed on the end of the pencil nearest the eraser, so that whenever a notation was made the pencil had to be reversed. Since notations are more frequent than erasures, it was suggested that the stamp be affixed at the pointed end of the pencil.

Although the library assistant was, of course, familiar with the methods in use and unfamiliar with the improved methods suggested, it was nevertheless possible for her, using the revised methods and tools, to reduce the time required for loaning a book by 35 per cent. Presumably the saving in time would be even greater when the new methods became habitual.

Fatigue on the part of the worker, besides being undesirable from humanitarian considerations, is known to impair both the quantity and the quality of the work performed. Reduction of fatigue is therefore one of the main objectives of motion and time study, and in making such a study we are concerned not only with waste motions but also with any other factors which are related to fatigue. Some of the most important of these are lighting, heating, ventilation, noise, and vibration. It was observed that lighting appeared to be inadequate in this library; that there was no means of maintaining an even temperature; and that the only method of controlling ventilation was by raising or lowering the win-

dows. It was suggested that attention be directed toward improving these conditions.

To summarize the recommendations made in connection with this motion and time study of part of the circulation routine in the Bradley Polytechnic Institute Library:

1. A simplification of the card files should be made.
2. By means of the "Circulation Statistics" the books in the stacks should be rearranged so that those in greatest demand are nearest the loan desk.
3. The due-date slip should be placed on the inside of the back cover and the

card pocket on the back flyleaf, as near the top of the page as possible.

4. The corners of the book cards should be slightly rounded.

5. The date stamp should be placed on the end of the pencil near the point rather than near the eraser.

6. Attention should be directed to improving the heating, lighting, and ventilation in the library.

The results of this study indicate that similar analyses could be applied with profit to other parts of the circulation cycle as well as to other library routines, such as ordering and cataloging of books and their preparation for use.

THE COVER DESIGN

JOHANNES AMERBACH was born in Amorbach, Oderwald, in 1430. He studied under the celebrated rhetorician and theologian, Johannes de Lapide, at the Sorbonne, where he was graduated A.M. From Paris he went to Venice and learned the art of printing. After gaining valuable experience by working as a proofreader for Anton Koberger in Nuremberg, Amerbach migrated to Basel near the close of the year 1477 and established there a large printing office. His first book is dated 1478.

Amerbach almost immediately distinguished himself by issuing the stately folio editions of standard authors which are associated with his name. He published the first complete edition of the works of Ambrose and, after printing numerous single works of Augustine, he issued a collected edition of the latter which was then the most nearly complete published. Weighty and costly works formed the bulk of Amerbach's productions—editions of the Bible, the *Decretales* of Pope Gregory IX and its commentaries by Gratian and by Nicolaus de Tudeschis, volumes of sermons, and commentaries on Aristotle are typical of the books which were issued from his press. Besides theology, Amerbach was interested in the works of the humanists. The letters of Philoephus, the poems of Petrarch, and especially the writings of the new school of rhetoricians formed a considerable part of his productions. Several editions of a celebrated Latin dictionary, Reuchlin's *Vocabularius breuiloquus*, were issued by him. He printed also an early bibliography, Johannes Trithemius' *De scriptoribus ecclesiasticis*, and a work on physiognomy by the celebrated Mi-

chael Scot. But it is surprising to note that among Amerbach's productions almost no classical authors or works in the vernacular are to be found.

Amerbach may justly be described as the earliest of the great scholar-printers. He edited many of his own texts, searching widely for old manuscripts and collating them with scholarly care. Often he sought the help of other scholars,

including his old teacher, Johannes de Lapide. Among his friends he numbered Erasmus and Dürer. His typographical standards were high. Many of his works appear in beautifully illustrated editions.

A great deal of Amerbach's correspondence has been preserved, giving us an intimate view of the life of an early printer. His letters to his children, couched in vigorous Latin, are especially interesting. His children emulated their father in scholarship rather than in printing—his youngest son, Bonifacius, became a distinguished jurist and an intimate friend of Erasmus—and soon after Amerbach's death on

Christmas day, 1513, the ownership of his press passed to Johann Froben, one of his partners.

Amerbach did not use a printer's mark until he had formed a partnership with Froben and Johann Petri. Their mark, reproduced in this number, represents a cockatrice (the Latin name of which, *basiliscus*, forms a pun on the name of the city) supporting the arms of Basel. The mark was engraved by Master D. S. and is dated Basel, 1511.

EDWIN ELIOTT WILLOUGHBY

FOLGER SHAKESPEARE LIBRARY



THE CONTRIBUTORS TO THIS ISSUE

DEAN D. BATTLES was born in Joliet, Illinois, on August 24, 1898. He attended the Bradley Academy and was graduated from the University of Illinois, where he majored in architecture. Following his graduation he taught for four years and has since been employed in the accounting department of the Standard Oil Company.

HOWARD DAVIS was born in Peoria, Illinois, on April 1, 1904. He has taken several special short courses at Bradley Polytechnic Institute. He was employed as superintendent of the East Peoria Sanitary District until his recent induction into the Army.

HERBERT GOLDHOR: for biographical information see the *Library Quarterly*, XII (1942), 286. Mr. Goldhor received his Ph.D. degree from the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago in September, 1942. He is now in a Civilian Public Service Camp.

WILLIAM HARMS was born in Peoria, Illinois, on June 16, 1912. Following his graduation from the Apprentice Training School of the Caterpillar Tractor Company, he served as an inspector for that organization. He is at present on military service.

LULU RUTH REED: for biographical information see the *Library Quarterly*, VIII (1938), 284-85. Since 1938 Miss Reed has engaged in several research projects and has taught library science courses during the summer term at various universities. Since September, 1940, she has been employed as reference librarian at Baylor University, Waco, Texas.

NATHANIEL STEWART: for biographical information see the *Library Quarterly*, XII (1942), 287. Mr. Stewart is now on leave of absence

from Dillard University in order to act as head training officer and codirector of libraries in the United States Office of Censorship.

WILLIAM JEROME WILSON was born at Saginaw, Michigan, on August 16, 1884. He received his A.B. degree from Western Reserve University in 1905, his A.M. from Northwestern University in 1909, and his Ph.D. from Harvard in 1915. From 1909 to 1911 he was professor of Greek at Iowa Wesleyan University; from 1914 to 1918 professor of Greek and Latin at the College of the Pacific; and from 1921 to 1929 assistant professor of English at the Eastern Washington College of Education. He spent the year 1927-28 in Europe as a Guggenheim Fellow, studying Greek manuscripts of the scientific Hermetic literature. In 1929 he went to the Library of Congress, where he spent twelve years directing or assisting in various special bibliographical projects. Since 1942 he has been with the Office of Price Administration.

Dr. Wilson is the author of "The Career of the Prophet Hermas" (*Harvard Theological Review*, XX [1927], 21-62); the three-volume *Census of Medieval and Renaissance Manuscripts in the United States and Canada* (New York, 1935-40), in collaboration with Seymour de Ricci; *Catalogue of Latin and Vernacular Alchemical Manuscripts in the United States and Canada* (published at Bruges in 1939 as Vol. VI of *Osiris*); "An Alchemical Manuscript by Arnaldus de Bruxella" (*Osiris*, II [1936], 220-405); articles on the history of alchemy in the *Ciba Symposia*, articles on the Thacher Manuscript on Columbus in the *Hispanic American Historical Review* and elsewhere, and contributions to *Isis*, *Speculum*, *Journal of Chemical Education*, etc. He has been associate editor of *Isis* since 1942 and is a member of the Bibliographical Society of America, Phi Beta Kappa, and the History of Science Society.

REVIEW ARTICLE

BOOK SELECTION AND THE SECONDARY-SCHOOL LIBRARY

The selection of books, magazines, pamphlets, films, records, and other materials for high schools has increasingly become a more important, as well as a more complex, function in the modern secondary school. Increased use of books for instructional purposes, new curricular developments, increased production of materials, and new concepts about the purpose, the nature, and the instruction of reading have all influenced book-selection practices; these factors affecting book selection have been reiterated to the point where they are accepted as familiar commonplaces, whereas in reality they require and deserve inquiry and interpretation in specific terms of how, to what extent, with what results, and why. Although the critical analysis and the objective evaluation of book selection in secondary schools yet remain to be written, certain guides or aids in the area are available for those participating in the selection of materials for the school.

Usually and ideally, the responsibility for the selection of books in the school falls to the school librarian. Actually, he may or may not receive the co-operation of the teachers in the school in selecting books, but the chances for greater utilization of the material selected are higher in situations where the faculty participates in the selection process. The librarian may also receive help in book selection from sources other than fellow faculty members; these aids assume a variety of forms and have different degrees of pressure attached to them. The librarian may be influenced, directed, or guided by the literature dealing with or related to book selection, the administrative machinery of the school situation, statutory measures, and community factors; these avenues of influence at best form only a secondary approach to the nature of book selection for any given institution, since the objectives of the school, the nature of the curriculum, characteristics of the school population, and evaluation hold more significance.

The literature of book selection for secondary-school libraries consists of (1) book-selection aids or guides, including reading lists; (2) mate-

rial dealing with administrative aspects of the problem, such as allocation of funds, budgetary standards, and technical processing; (3) theoretical considerations of book-selection principles; (4) accounts (frequently autobiographical) of book-selection practices; and (5) criteria for evaluating materials. Directly related to and perhaps even more significant for the topic of book selection is the literature which includes (1) reading studies, (2) material related to the use of books in the school, (3) literary criticism, and (4) selected content in the fields of adolescent psychology and of guidance. Within the past year three volumes have appeared which can be classified in one or more of the categories included in the preceding statements: *A Basic Book Collection for High Schools*,¹ the fourth edition of the *Standard Catalog for High School Libraries*,² and *Book Selection for Secondary School Libraries*.³

A Basic Book Collection, which replaces *1000 Books for the Senior High School Library*, has been compiled by a Joint Committee of the American Library Association, the National Education Association, and the National Council of Teachers of English, with Jessie Boyd as chairman. The objectives in compiling the *Basic Book Collection*, particularly in relation to other existing and comparable lists, are nowhere specifically stated, although the Introduction implies that, as the school library grows in size, there will be a shift in use from this list to the *Standard Catalog for High School Libraries*. The criteria for the inclusion of books in the list are implied in the statements that it contains "live, useful and interesting" books suggested by teachers, school librarians, and public librarians and that the books will "meet curricular needs and individual reading interests" and "aid

¹ Chicago: American Library Association, 1942. Pp. 193. \$2.00.

² Edited by Isabel S. Munro, assisted by Ruth Jervis. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1942. Pp. x+1150. (On the service basis.)

³ By Willard A. Heaps. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1942. Pp. 335. \$2.50.

young people in understanding and meeting the problems of the times." Since a compact and, as the title indicates, "basic" list of books has intrinsic value, it would be unfortunate if there were attached to this excellent list the attitude that the larger school library has no need of it. Its critical annotations, its strong fiction, biography, travel, and poetry sections, and its recognition of curricular approaches to books make it a helpful tool for all who are working with young people and reading.

The list contains 1,500 titles, of which 300 are fiction and 150 are biographies; additional titles are mentioned in the annotations. Bibliographies and pamphlets are included as well as books. The volume is arranged by the Dewey Decimal Classification scheme and alphabetically by author within each class. An author, subject, and title index is provided, and a half-page "Sources of Free and Inexpensive Materials" and a directory of publishers are appended. For each entry the book gives the usual bibliographical detail and excellent critical-descriptive annotations. The index has limitations in its usefulness as a subject index; for example, "consumer education" or "consumption" and "safety education" and certain other topics either are not listed at all or do not include all the titles on the subject contained in the main part of the list. Cross-references in greater abundance would also make the index more helpful. "Immigration" lists but one title, whereas "United States—Immigration and Emigration" lists three; but there is no cross-reference, and the title under the former entry, although pertinent, is not included under the latter. "Emigration" has no entry. There is no general entry or cross-reference under "Dictionaries," whereas there are subdivisions for dictionaries under "English Language," "French Language," "German Language" and other language entries. These examples can be multiplied. Some minor inconsistencies in entries do not seriously impair the work but might well be corrected in a subsequent edition. For example Rawlings' *The Yearling* is the only entry listed under the heading "Family Life" and is not included under the entry "Family Life—Fiction." The annotations in the *Basic Book Collection* are particularly well done, especially those in the drama, biography, poetry, and fiction sections. These annotations frequently give information concerning the reading level of the titles and the types of student reading interests which they satisfy.

The fourth edition of the *Standard Catalog for High School Libraries* contains 3,835 books fully cataloged, 1,025 other books noted briefly, and 500 pamphlets. (The third edition included 3,450 fully cataloged titles, 786 additional books, and 558 pamphlets.) The arrangement and purpose of this catalog and the method of its compilation are so well known that there is no need to elaborate upon them here, inasmuch as the fourth edition is substantially the same in these respects as former editions. In the latest edition a large number of new titles have, of course, been added, and books no longer available (with some exceptions) or pertinent have been eliminated. The fourth edition reverses the order of arrangement, the dictionary section now preceding the classified section. The classified section, like the *Basic Book Collection*, follows the Dewey Decimal Classification. It would be interesting to see one major list follow some arrangement more functional in terms of curricular and noncurricular reading patterns of students. Devices for keeping such technical aspects as classification numbers constant might still be preserved and yet a more realistic grouping of books be achieved.

Changes between the third and fourth editions in the quantitative allocation of books in the different classes can be seen most readily in Table 1, which shows the percentage of books in each class, and they can be compared with the distribution of titles in the *Basic Book Collection*. Information for the first two columns has been taken from the prefaces of the third and fourth editions of the *Standard Catalog* and for the third column from Heaps's volume on book selection for secondary-school libraries.

Since no standard can be arbitrarily set for the best distribution of the high-school book collection on a percentage allocation of titles among the different classes, it is not feasible to evaluate book lists in these terms. Certain tendencies, however, can be observed. It is interesting to note the increase in the useful arts (from 484 to 700 books), in biography, and in fiction in the fourth edition of the *Standard Catalog* as compared with the third. The fourth edition now unquestionably has the strongest technical section of any general book list for school libraries. The decrease in science and in the social studies, although small, is also worthy of attention. The fiction section, ever a source for adverse comment concerning its adequacy, has been improved in the latest edition but could be still further developed, particularly as to

scope, annotation, and subject headings. With newer trends in developmental reading and in social studies units, the small number of books dealing with philosophy and religion has been questioned by some. The fourth edition of the *Standard Catalog* has only one title in the history-of-philosophy class and only one in "Religions."

Changes between the third and fourth editions also emerge when an analysis is made of the extent of duplication between two like classes in the different editions. (This change

indicates that a quantitative and a qualitative change occurs between two editions.

In addition to the expanded technical section, perhaps the next most significant new feature of the fourth edition is the expansion and realignment made in the classification structure. To observe this change best, the reader need only compare the classes in the 300's, 500's, 600's, and 700's in the two editions. Among the new separate classes in the classified section of the fourth edition are the following: "School Libraries," "Personality," "Social Surveys," "World State," "Democracy," "Foreign Relations of the United States," "Consumption," "Youth," "Young People's Societies," "Read-

TABLE 1

CLASSIFICATION	PERCENTAGE		
	Standard Catalog		Basic Book Collection
	1937	1947	
General works (000) . . .	1.6	1.6	1.9
Philosophy (100)	0.8	0.7	0.8
Religion (200)	1.0	0.4	0.6
Social sciences (300) . .	12.0	11.0	12.3
Philology (400)	1.5	1.0	1.3
Science (500)	9.8	8.0	7.9
Useful arts (600)	14.0	18.0	10.2
Fine arts (700)	8.1	8.7	8.4
Literature (800)	13.0	11.0	12.8
Travel (910-919)	7.1	6.0	7.5
History (900-909, 930-991)	11.0	8.0	7.5
Biography (92, 920) . .	6.8	8.6	10.0
Fiction and story collections	13.3	17.0	19.5

would be less sharp if the supplements had been included.) Table 2 records some spot sampling of book titles which receive full cataloging entry in the two editions. Marked changes in the classification schemes followed in the two editions have made it necessary to confine these comparisons to smaller sections. The tabulation in Table 2 takes into consideration changes in classification number in which a volume in the later edition has a number different from that which it had in the earlier edition. It does not indicate, however, titles fully cataloged in the earlier edition and "also noted" at the head of sections in the fourth edition, or "R" books. Consistently, most of the titles included in the fourth but not in the third edition were printed after publication of the 1937 edition. The sections selected for comparison are probably typical of the work as a whole, and the analysis in-

TABLE 2

TITLES	CLASSIFICATION NUMBER			
	100-100	500	910	920
Included in both editions	14	5	17	44
Included in third edition but not in fourth edition	15	11	11	17
Included in fourth edition but not in third edition	15	9	12	30
Total number in third edition	29	16	28	61
Total number in fourth edition	29	14	29	74

ing," "Telescope," "Navigation and Nautical Astronomy," "Surface Features of the Earth," "Geographical Distribution of Animals," "History of Medicine," "Adulterations and Pure Food Laws," "Television," "Air Defenses," "Chemical Warfare," "Boat Building and Naval Architecture," "City Planning," "Houses," "Art in Industries," "Artistic Furniture," and many others. The "Aeronautics" section is also greatly expanded with many new subsections.

A third noteworthy development in relation to the fourth edition of the *Standard Catalog* concerns the *Catholic Supplement*, a supplementary list of books recommended for Catholic high schools. If this is desired, it may be obtained separately or in a special combination volume with the *Standard Catalog*. The *Supplement* stresses fiction, literature, religion, and biography. Of the 809 books included in the list, 222 titles fall in the religion group. The same committee of the Catholic Library Association which compiled the *Supplement*, after reviewing the books in the *Standard Catalog*, requested that the statement "not recommended

by CHSC committee" be inserted in the fourth edition after 75 titles, and this was done. It would perhaps have been more politic had the Introduction of the *Standard Catalog* made some statement which showed on what basis these 75 titles were so characterized; otherwise there will certainly be a tendency on the part of those who are uninformed in this respect to believe that all 75 titles are banned books.

A comparison between *A Basic Book Collection for High Schools* and the fourth edition of the *Standard Catalog for High School Libraries* shows that both are useful as book-selection, cataloging, reference, and reading-guidance tools. Arrangement and bibliographical detail are essentially the same. In addition to being a much more comprehensive list, the *Standard Catalog* has more material at the junior high school level. Symbols indicating titles for junior high school, senior high school, and trade-school use and a system of starring and double-starring books recommended for first purchase increase the usefulness of the *Standard Catalog*. Besides those factors which have already been noted, the major strengths of the *Basic Book Collection* are in its selectivity and in its annotations. The extent to which the one list duplicates the other can be inferred from a check of the 300, the individual biography, and the fiction classes. Of the entries (excluding pamphlets) in the 300's in the *Basic Book Collection*, the *Standard Catalog* includes for full or also-noted entry 84 per cent of the titles. In individual biography the *Standard Catalog* lists all but 14 of the titles included in the *Basic Book Collection*, and in fiction it includes all but 28 titles. Obviously, the *Standard Catalog* includes many more titles in each section than those titles checked for duplication. Although the degree to which the one list is duplicated by the other seems high (as far as the listing of certain titles is concerned and as far as the three classes selected for comparison are representative of the lists as a whole), there is not the complete agreement which one might expect; it is interesting to note that the smaller, more selective list has recorded many titles as basic for the small library which the larger list does not include. School librarians and other teachers can use both lists profitably. There is no evidence to show why one and not both of the lists should be obtained for the school. It would be interesting to determine to what extent school library collections throughout the country tend toward uniformity as the result of extensive use by

school librarians of lists such as these in book-selection practice. Although there are those who deplore a certain regimentation inflicted by strict adherence to standard book lists, reliance upon standard lists must exist to a degree until better facilities for the actual examination of books are opened to librarians.

The volume by Heaps, *Book Selection for Secondary School Libraries*, is the first book devoted entirely to this subject. That there is a need for a book dealing with the theory of book selection in secondary schools cannot be denied, but the answer to this need has not been filled by this work. The book has four parts: "The Adolescent and His Reading," "The Background of Book Selection," "The Curricular Backgrounds of Book Selection," and "The Practice of Book Selection." Part I considers developments in education and in school librarianship, the interests and activities of adolescents, aspects of the reading instructional program, reading interests, and book selection for special types of readers. Part II discusses theories of book selection, the types of book materials in the school library, factors relating to the evaluation of books in general, editions and series, book-selection aids, types and evaluation of books of fiction, biography, and travel. Part III deals with book selection for curricular objectives and needs and presents for major subject areas (English and literature; social studies; science and mathematics; art, music, foreign languages, and health; vocations and vocational guidance; the vocational subjects; and miscellaneous curriculum topics) chapters which note the general characteristics and the teaching trends of the subject, the types of books needed for the subject, and sources of material. Part IV includes the technical aspects of book selection, administrative factors, and special problems such as duplication, censorship, propaganda, and problems connected with special types of schools. Appendixes contain an "Index to Subject Booklists and Bibliographies" and "Sources for Current Booklists."

Heaps has attempted to do too many things in his volume, and, as a result, has left many important issues and salient problems with a superficial treatment; this is particularly noticeable in the sections which deal with reading. Too, on many subjects the author presents so many viewpoints or attaches so many qualifying factors to his major premises that any decisive or clear-cut presentation of the subject becomes lost. This "cautious" delineation limits the use-

fulness of the book in many areas to beginning library-school students or to others who are inexperienced in the practice of book selection. It is time for someone to take a definite stand on many of the problems relating to book selection. Until this time comes, librarians are unable to give the constructive and vigorous guidance which their administrators and faculty wish in this field. Objective and essential though it may be to recognize variables, it is equally necessary not to stop at that point but to interpret and to outline definite policy and practice in terms of the variables.

Other limitations of the volume center in its failure to take cognizance of many progressive educational practices in the modern school and in the absence of "book-talk" in the text; since documentation for these limitations can be readily seen upon examination of the book, only a few examples need be cited here. Newer developments in the area of reading guidance and factors affecting it, such as those represented in the work of Rosenblatt, Lenrow, Raushenbush, Mansell, Strang, Waples, Richards, and others, and the resultant implications for school libraries in terms of book selection and use are not recognized sufficiently by Heaps. His failure to consider at least by implication significant developments in the sociology of reading and in the typology of reading causes him to use outmoded general classifications of books and to omit mention of recent significant findings. The place of the librarian as a materials specialist and as a participant in curriculum construction in the school and the functions of the faculty in book selection do not receive sufficient treatment. Unfortunate, too, is the impression (and it may be an unfair one) that the author does not know individual books in terms of the reading of young people. Very infrequently are titles mentioned in the body of the text, although lists of authors' names (frequently unfortunate selections) are often given to exemplify the author's point. Certainly, in a volume dealing with book selection an occasional "bookish" flavor coming from a wide familiarity with many books and from an experienced knowledge of how young readers respond to these books would not be amiss; the volume is singularly devoid of this.

If *Book Selection for Secondary School Libraries* is considered as a bibliographic rather than a critical work, it has definite values. Many excellent bibliographies and book lists are included; indeed, these occur with such frequency

that the volume might be best characterized as a sourcebook. Potential users of the volume as a whole include library-school students and, for the lists and bibliographies contained in the book, in-service and prospective school librarians. The superficial treatment of many important problems basic to intelligent book selection and the omission of certain areas of content make it rather unfair to present this volume to administrators and subject teachers as representing what librarians have to say on the subject.

The strategic importance of book selection in the secondary school has not yet received its full recognition. The success or failure of a course or even of a curriculum can hinge on the nature of the book selection in any school situation. The effectiveness of the reading program of the school depends upon the nature and the extent of the reading materials provided as well as upon the motivation and nature of their use. Book-selection practices may form determinants in the shaping of attitudes, experience backgrounds, and emotional patterns of the school population; they may facilitate the approach to the understanding of individual personalities. For many years the literature of book selection was concerned primarily with the belletristic characteristics of books; in another cycle it centered in the administrative factors relating to the procedure and technique of book selection; today the emphasis falls on the reader and book selection in terms of readers, frequently individual readers. The role of the school librarian in selecting book and nonbook materials for the school gives him a unique opportunity to participate realistically in the educational program of the school. The ultimate realization of this opportunity may eventuate in new or expanded concepts of school librarianship, in new national or regional bibliographic services undertaken and managed by school librarians, and in forceful interpretations of library-centered reading programs and of school libraries as reading laboratories. Now the school librarians have an opportunity and a responsibility to advance and to interpret to others their knowledge of books and the selection of books. Much remains to be done in these areas. So far the best work has been done in the compilation of book lists and in conscientious book-selection practice, but this is only a beginning.

FRANCES HENNE

GRADUATE LIBRARY SCHOOL
UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

REVIEWS

500 Years of Art and Illustration. By HOWARD SIMON. Cleveland: World Pub. Co., 1942. Pp. xvii+476. \$2.98.

Seldom, if ever, has a more inviting picture-book been offered to the public at such a price. In its 476 pages appear nearly six hundred pictures chosen by the author to represent the progress of book illustration as an art from the fifteenth century to the present day.

The first half of the book is devoted to the period from the invention of printing to Doré. After a brief preliminary chapter describing the beginnings of illustration, twenty-two famous artists are presented in chronological order. The second half of the book is devoted to the modern period, with ten chapters dealing with ten different countries. Each chapter is made up of a very brief text followed by illustrations. Modern France is represented by more than seventy examples, and the United States and Great Britain by nearly a hundred each. Selected from the works of important artists, in most cases, these illustrations give the reader a source for a general study of the subject.

Praise should be given the publisher for his achievement in producing a book of such distinguished appearance—an achievement which is the result of more than usually good reproductions handled with more than usual taste. Good prints are placed on good paper with margins generous enough to give the examples the best possible setting.

A book which attempts to survey the development of illustration through six centuries can be at best but representative. The merit of such a book, therefore, depends in large part upon the success with which the materials chosen for inclusion represent the period covered. Inspection shows that, in his treatment of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, the author has mentioned in his text only six famous books produced in Germany, Italy, and France besides those illustrated by Dürer and Holbein. Such brevity results in a disproportionate under-

emphasis on this important period. Among his examples he does not include Breydenbach's *Peregrinatio in terram sanctam* (Mainz, 1486), the first book to contain true illustrations in the sense that the cuts were made by the artist from life for this particular publication. Nor does he mention the *Theuerdanck* (Nuremberg, 1517)—famous example of the Emperor Maximilian's ambitious and lavish publishing efforts—or the immensely popular *Meditations* of Bonaventura, which ranks as one of the most potent influences on later illustrators of the Passion. He may be criticized also for omitting the *Schatzbehalter*, illustrated by Wolgemut, printed by Koberger in Nuremberg (1491), and commonly conceded to contain the first efforts to produce the effect of tones instead of mere outlines.

Among the early works of France the author omits both the magnificent *Cité de dieu* of Augustine (Abbeville, 1486) and the *Chroniques de France* (1493), and he ignores the most notable achievement in French illustrated book production in the late fifteenth and early sixteenth centuries—the printing of devotional books by such men as Du Pré, Pigouchet, and Thielmann Kerver. His failure to make any reference to England and Spain in this early period may be justified because of the relatively slight activity in these countries at the time.

In his chronology of famous men the author leaps from Holbein to Hogarth—more than one hundred and fifty years—excluding Rembrandt, one of the greatest contributors to the art of illustration in all time.

In the chapters on the moderns he fails to mention the works of such men as Romagnol, Pierre Bonnard, Charles Guérin, George Barbier, and Louis Legrand in France and Frederic Remington, Joseph Pennell, E. McKnight Kauffer, Thomas Lowinsky, and Rudolph Ruzicka in England and the United States. These omissions are magnified by the author's undue emphasis on the works of two men, John Austen and himself. Thirteen of John Austen's

illustrations are reproduced and nine of the author's own—more than for any other men in the twentieth century.

The text does not fulfil the promise of the very stimulating Introduction in that little of it would qualify as historical interpretation. The commentaries of the chapters never exceed four pages. Even in this limited space the author might have traced the larger trends in the evolution of fashion in book illustration or the variations in the use of different techniques, or he might have commented on the degree of success of the artists' interpretations, had he not too often wasted on the personal, the anecdotal, and the trivial, lines that he should have reserved for critical evaluation.

Frequently, in his effort to be brief, the author has been led to make statements which are incomplete and generalizations which are disputable. He says, for example, that, prior to printing, "the illumination and decoration of manuscripts had been confined for the most part to Italy, Spain and Austria" (p. 1). It is difficult to understand why he should have excluded France from the list. His strict adherence to the letter of the Gutenberg tradition will irritate those who argue that tradition, and his unqualified statement (p. 3) that "Ratdolt . . . was the first to print in color" ignores the earlier Mainz Psalter printed in three colors by Fust and Schoeffer in 1457.

The publisher and printer are responsible for at least two blemishes. They have inserted a folding plate which, when extended, is equal to four leaves and is therefore subject to immediate mutilation, and on pages 8 and 9 they have reversed the order of two sections of one of the processional scenes taken from the *Dream of Poliphilius*, thereby literally placing the cart before the horse. It might be added that some of the reproductions are blacker than the originals from which they were taken.

Despite its faults this book is to be recommended to those who are interested in securing in one cover a very large number of excellent reproductions of some of the world's best illustrations. The author's purpose as set forth in the Foreword should be achieved: the book should serve as an introduction and as an impetus to further study.

JOHN T. WINDLE

Newberry Library
Chicago

Of Books and Men. By JOSEPH J. REILLY. New York: Julian Messner, Inc., 1942. Pp. ix+273.

Joseph J. Reilly discourses of men and books in the grand old tradition, that is, as a lover of books and interpreter of the philosophies they reveal. As professor of English and librarian at Hunter College (New York), he brings to his undertaking a wide and authentic knowledge of literature and, as an artist—for this he indubitably is—a rare and potent gift for translating into spiritual terms some of the subtle and contradictory qualities which have baffled some literary critics and not a few readers of the twenty-three writers whose personalities and works he interprets.

The author's choice of subjects embraces poets, novelists, dramatists, essayists, historians, biographers, and a few writers of famous literary memoirs. The last group he designates, a little flippantly, as "hardy perennials," perhaps in contradistinction to some of the others who made their name and fame in the nineteenth or twentieth century but whose reputations perhaps do not hold the promise of so enduring a vitality. Though Mr. Reilly writes of familiar literary figures, he employs a novel method of discussing the disparity of motivation in the work of some of those who have employed the same literary form and are regarded as exponents of similar philosophies and of contrasting others who have been credited with identity of inspiration but whose works, he believes, express divergent views of life. Many readers will, therefore, find *Of Books and Men* a provocative re-evaluation of old favorites which may lead to a rereading of them. Especially should this be the case among librarians, who are always seeking new approaches to the writers of yesterday, along which to entice readers. They will find in Mr. Reilly's groupings, parallels, and contrasts, many a suggestion for awakening or reviving interest in the literature of the past.

For example, in writing of A. E. Housman the author confesses to a response to the poet's pessimism quite other than that of despair. Even while he analyzes with deepest sympathy the poet's extraordinary power to communicate a mood of poignant sorrow and lauds his genius for discovering the perfect word, the "inevitable" rhyme, the haunting cadence, which, all combined, induce in most readers a melancholy

as profound as Housman's own, Mr. Reilly apprehends behind that dark impenetrable veil of hopelessness which so desolates the poet something of an ineffable nature which for him has power to "chasten and enrich" the soul; and by his many quotations he succeeds in convincing the reader—at least this reader—that even in Housman's tragic reconciliation to the unsolvable mystery of death there is unconscious affirmation of the existence of that bond with the infinite for which the poet so yearned. Its very existence, he intimates, is implicit in the surpassing and unearthly beauty of his verse.

It is from this same religious frame of reference that Mr. Reilly interprets another, less well-known poet, Mary Coleridge, who sang also in a minor key, in verse as profoundly sad and exquisitely lovely as Housman's but infused with a faith which transforms all she ever wrote into an expression of spiritual ecstasy transcending the mournful implications of her words. While it is with other poets than Housman that the critic compares her—Emily Dickinson, Christina Rossetti, Mrs. Browning—he applies to her poetry the same measuring rod of greatness with which he evaluates Housman's ceaseless lament against the inscrutability of nature, life, and death—namely, How great is the poet's power, conscious or unconscious, to strike that note which arouses in his reader "humility, joy and unending wonder"? It is true that Housman did not consciously evoke joy; but the response to beauty, even when beauty is born of melancholy, is joy of an aesthetic nature. It is this joy all readers of Housman experience. Mr. Reilly convinces us that Mary Coleridge also passes this test—that she emerges triumphantly from the same "torment of Yea and Nay" and strikes the spiritual note that marks great poetry.

This sensitive and sympathetic interpreter of familiar literature carries over into his criticism of biographers and novelists the same method of measuring their achievement. He seems primarily interested in discovering and analyzing the transcendental values inherent in their work, in making a kind of spiritual reappraisal of their well-established reputations. One of the most interesting essays in *Of Books and Men*, for example, is that which deals with Lytton Strachey, the validity of whose judgments has not often been questioned. Mr. Reilly discusses the philosophy of the new school of biography launched by Strachey, which scoffs at Horace's dictum, *De mortuis nil nisi bonum*, and he gives

a brief but masterly account of its development, some of its outstanding characteristics, and the psychology of those who practice its principles. He claims, however, that Strachey borrowed his superb and colorful diction from Macaulay. "From him," he writes, "Strachey learned the value of the concrete word, the casual allusion, the specific instance, the picturesque detail, and the infinite and effective possibilities of contrast."

What makes this interpretation of Strachey interesting is the manner in which his interpreter applies to him the very principles of biographical analysis which Strachey has used on his subjects; but, unlike Strachey, Mr. Reilly does not become so enamored of his method as to invalidate the conclusions to which it leads. He condemns Strachey's obsession with irony, which, he points out in some very pertinent excerpts from *Eminent Victorians*, makes a mockery of that detachment claimed to be the animating principle of the new biography. Mr. Strachey's defection from this principle inspires some of Mr. Reilly's best writing. He points out what he regards as the sources of some of his subject's inspiration—Voltaire, master of irony; Macaulay, adept in the art of contrast; George Eliot, painter of the hidden springs of human action, of the imponderables in human motives; and, lastly, John Galsworthy, who taught him how to communicate with telling immediacy the emerging thoughts of his characters. Mr. Reilly gives Strachey full credit for narrative power of a high order; he re-creates the past more vividly and entertainingly than many of his famous predecessors in the field of biography. Having paid Strachey this tribute, however, Mr. Reilly applies his now familiar scale of spiritual measurement and finds him wanting. "He became so adept [in his use of irony]," he says, "that, like Voltaire with the same instrument and like Macaulay with his infinite contrasts, he obeyed second nature in beholding men, their virtues, views, and actions, not under the guise of truth but under the guise of irony."

One by one Mr. Reilly passes in review those famous books, *Eminent Victorians*, *Queen Victoria*, *Elizabeth and Essex*, quoting numerous examples from them to prove his contention that Strachey became the victim of his own devastating talent and that ultimately his interest in biography "became a cynical quest of weakness, self-contradiction, ignoble compromises between good and evil"—that he lacked, in short, the sympathy essential to true understanding of

human beings. Mr. Reilly writes, however, from the point of view of an ardent Catholic. It is obviously difficult for him to view with complete detachment Mr. Strachey's treatment of such great coreligionists as Manning and Newman. It is, in fact, the malicious analysis of Manning which, I believe, drives Mr. Reilly to remind his readers, as he concludes the essay on Strachey, of Mr. Carlyle's famous reply to the charge that no man is a hero to his valet—that *that was the fault of the valet*.

It is from this same Catholic frame of reference that Mr. Reilly discusses the novels of Maurice Baring, but here his religious insight throws a favorable light on the too seldom perceived religious fervor which, he claims, animates those passionate dramas of illicit love which the novelist depicted as always going on beneath the smooth surface of the urbane British aristocracy he knew so well. In describing what he regards as the profoundly spiritual motivation of all of Baring's novels, Mr. Reilly makes a genuine contribution to the understanding of a fine writer whose public is all too limited.

While he does not draw any overt comparison between Maurice Baring and Thomas Hardy, he attributes the latter's pervasive and bitter irony to his lack of any sustaining spiritual concept such as inspired Baring. He believes it is in Hardy's power to stir in his readers a passionate and infinite pity for mankind that his greatness lies rather than in his contagious obsession with the malevolence of Fate.

In his chapter on Conrad, on the other hand, he tries to show the heights to which the alliance of spiritual faith with aesthetic genius can lift a writer. He finds in Conrad's most tragic tales what he considers concrete evidence of the author's recognition and acceptance of a mysterious and sublime force which can imbue man, in his darkest hour as well as in his hours of ecstasy, with a sense of his oneness with the universe.

The limitations of space preclude further examples of Mr. Reilly's novel and fascinating method of interpreting literature. The book is rich in new approaches to old books. For the librarian in particular it should prove a gold mine of ideas for a regrouping of familiar writers; and for the casual reader, a delightful introduction to some new old classics.

AGNES CAMILLA HANSEN

Pratt Institute Library School

The King James Version of the English Bible: An Account of the Development and Sources of the English Bible of 1611 with Special Reference to the Hebrew Tradition. By DAVID DAICHES. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1941. Pp. vii+228. \$2.50.

In this monograph (based upon his Oxford University doctoral dissertation) Dr. Daiches has attempted "first, to write a history of English Bible translation from 1523 to 1611 . . . and, second, . . . to throw some light on the sources, equipment, and methods of the translators" (p. v).

The first chapter describes the various translations from Tyndale's to King James's. Hebrew scholarship of the Middle Ages and Renaissance, especially as it existed among Christians, is next taken up. From this survey emerges a detailed picture of the resources available to the translators of the Old Testament of the King James version: the grammars, dictionaries, and similar aids to Hebrew study; the editions of the Hebrew Bible, the translations of it into Latin and vernacular languages and the commentaries upon it; and, finally, the scholars and teachers of Hebrew who flourished in England during the century preceding 1611—especially those who could have taught or aided the translators.

The knowledge of Hebrew possessed by the individual translators of the Old Testament of the King James Bible is next estimated by a careful survey of each scholar's published works and other sources.

The next and most important section of Dr. Daiches' book is a comparison of the Hebrew text of Isaiah with the English translations made before 1611, with the King James and with the Septuagint and Vulgate translations, the Targum, the commentary of David Kimchi, and other texts. From this comparison the author concludes that, despite King James's instructions, the translators of the 1611 version usually followed the Geneva Bible rather than the Bishop's version. The translators, he finds, followed the original Hebrew text, usually with the help of Kimchi's commentary. But, where the Hebrew text is obscure and Kimchi gave them no help, the translators sometimes sought aid from the Septuagint or Vulgate versions. The Geneva Bible, in such a passage, usually hazarded a literal translation, even though the meaning remained vague.

Although the most valuable portions of this monograph are Dr. Daiches' survey of the He-

brew scholarship of the translators of the King James version and his study of their method of translating the Old Testament, it is probable that his account of the earlier translations of the Bible will have the greater appeal to the general reader. This section is a well-balanced, compact, and interesting narrative. In it, however, he has repeated two widely accepted statements concerning the King James version which, in the reviewer's opinion, need examination.

After showing that the King James version was never "authorized," Dr. Daiches writes: "The superior merits of the 1611 Bible soon won for it a position in the country which was as high as any authorization could have effected . . ." (pp. 71-72). This usually accepted opinion that our forefathers accepted the King James version because they recognized its merits is an attractive one. But it leaves out of consideration the conservatism of people in regard to their versions of the Scriptures and ignores the fact that the purchaser of a new copy of a Bible was speedily deprived of his choice of version. After 1616 no edition of the Geneva Bible was printed in England. This was not because public demand had turned from the Geneva to the King James version. The Puritans often, probably usually, preferred to own copies of the Geneva version. But they found, as Prynne bitterly complained, "our printers have neglected to reprint them for fear of hindering the sale of Bibles of the last translation . . ." (*Canterburies Doome* [1646], p. 181). Editions of the Geneva Bible were printed—usually with the misleading date "1599" on their title-pages—on the Continent and smuggled into England, there to be sold, no doubt, at a higher price than that fixed for domestically printed Bibles. And Archbishop Laud at his trial was attacked for preventing the printing of the popular Puritan Bible. The King James Bible, then, irrespective of its undoubted merits, was sure of overcoming its rivals; it was the only Bible on the market.

Although Dr. Daiches shows familiarity with the latest bibliographical discoveries regarding the earlier versions of the English Bible, he takes as his authority for the bibliography of the early editions of the King James Bible Francis Fry's *A Description of the Large Folio Editions of the Authorized Version* (1865). This monumental work has been superseded on many points. The "Great He" and the "Great She" Bibles—so called because the former has the incorrect reading "he" in Ruth 3:15 and the latter the correct reading "she"—are not "two

separate issues, each bearing the date 1611, [which] differ from each other in many small details" (p. 74). They are two distinct editions—a fact pointed out long ago by W. E. Smith in an article, "The Great She Bible" (*Library*, II [1st ser., 1890], 1-11, 96-102, 141-53), which Dr. Daiches cites in support of another statement (p. 74, n. 131). The "Great He" is the first edition of the 1611 Bible; the "Great She" is the second edition.

The practice of calling these two editions "issues," however, is still common in book catalogs and auction records. One suspects that bookdealers who advertise the "Great She" Bible as "First Edition, Second Issue" find it profitable to encourage this misconception. It may be of interest, then, briefly to recount the story, as the reviewer has reconstructed it, of the printing of these two earliest editions of the King James Bible.

Barker began printing the new version of the Bible in a stately folio edition intended for church use. As he neared the end, he decided the edition would be sold out soon after publication. To save cost of composition, therefore, he began, late in the New Testament section, to print off a number of sheets sufficient for two editions. But he soon stopped doing this—probably on orders from the Stationers' Company on the complaint of his compositors. The first edition, with the date 1611 on both the main and the New Testament title-pages, is called, from the error noted, the "Great He" Bible.

Barker then made a page-for-page reprint of the first edition. He utilized, of course, the few sheets which he had been able to print for this edition from type of the first edition. From the correct reading already noted this edition is known as the "Great She" Bible. It was published with the date 1611 on both title-pages—the first issue of the second edition.

The second edition evidently sold less rapidly than did the first, and Barker turned to the printing of quarto and octavo Bibles. Then some accident, probably a fire, apparently destroyed approximately one-third of the sheets of the edition as they lay piled up in the shop. Among them, no doubt, were the sheets bearing the main title-page. To sell the remainder of the edition, it was necessary to reprint the missing sheets. At the time that he was reprinting these sheets Barker evidently was also printing a less expensive pulpit Bible. To save costs, he used to replace the missing main title-pages of his second-edition sheets bearing the title-pages

prepared for his third folio edition (the "True 1613 Folio"). As this main title bore the date 1613, the second issue of the second edition of the King James Bible (still known as the "Great She") bears the date 1613 on the main title-page and 1611 on the New Testament title-page.

The widespread acceptance of these two statements may justify the space devoted to them. To conclude, however: Dr. Daiches has given us an interesting survey of early English Bible translation and has made more clear the methods of the translators of the Old Testament portion of the 1611 version.

EDWIN ELIOTT WILLOUGHBY

Folger Shakespeare Library

Government Document Bibliography in the United States and Elsewhere. By JAMES B. CHILDS. 3d ed. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1942. Pp. xviii+78. \$0.20.

The thirty-nine-page first edition of this pamphlet appeared in 1927. It was confessedly tentative, "printed as manuscript." It proved a healthy plant and blossomed into a second, fifty-seven-page edition within three years. Now, after twelve more years, the original sponsor, presumably thoroughly seasoned in government documents after fifteen years as chief of the Division of Documents in the Library of Congress, presents Edition 3, ninety-six pages.

The Introduction (pp. v-xviii) is a careful (and, from its source, what may fairly be termed an official) account of progress in centralized printing, distribution, recording, and cataloging of our federal printed documents since enactment of the United States Printing Act of January 12, 1895, opened the way for creating order out of the previous chaos. Certain individuals are deservedly named (even in an official document) for effective pioneer work in procuring passage of this good law and for wise foresight in inaugurating work under it. John G. Ames, F. A. Crandall, and Ben Perley Poore were such pioneers. Equally deserving, but not usually cited, are Edith Emily Clarke, Mary A. Hartwell, Alice Fichtenkam, Helen C. Silliman, and (not here named but equally entitled to honorable mention) William S. Burns—altogether, a group of catalogers to whom we owe the inception and consistently high standards and workmanship of the admirable dictionary, *Document Catalog* (1893 to date), now in its twenty-fifth volume, with a total paging of nearly fifty thou-

sand. This gigantic catalog is but one of a dozen check lists, indexes, catalogs, and calendars of manuscripts and printed documents issued by and for the general government since its inception in 1789 and recorded in Part I (pp. 1-5) of the present pamphlet. Then follow (pp. 5-10) references to the latest editions of twenty-two lists, catalogs, and indexes to the publications of that number of government departments and bureaus. On pages 10-12 is a list of seventeen guides and handbooks written by American librarians during the twentieth century to facilitate the study of government documents in library schools and their easier and more effective use in the country's fast-increasing libraries. These titles are all privately published, and their inclusion here is a courteous compliment to the careful, excellent, and useful help which individuals have contributed toward the popularizing of government documents.

Under this federal stimulus forty-two American states and territories either have begun formal official recording of their own documents or have roused or enlisted the (usually) volunteer or slenderly rewarded services of such individual zealots as Bowker, Hasse, Evans, and Wilcox or of various libraries and library associations. Considerable as this aggregate effort may appear, it is but a slender beginning, as is clearly apparent from Part III (pp. 14-33), which lists the official publications of American states, territories, and dependencies. Eight states and two territories do not appear at all, and fifteen others are represented by but a single title, often only incidentally pertinent or of slight value.

Part III at once challenges comparison with pages 75-91 in Jerome K. Wilcox's *Manual on the Use of State Publications* (1940), in which the author did exactly what Mr. Childs has done two years later, but with better success. For five of the eight states for which Childs found no titles, Wilcox found ten. For the seven states for which Wilcox offers no titles, Childs furnishes three. For the forty-eight states Wilcox offers a total of one hundred and eighty-seven titles, Childs one hundred and four. It is too bad that a list from the Document Division of the Library of Congress is not as complete as any other, because this very field of state-documents bibliography is of high importance and one in which much work remains to be done. Both Wilcox and Childs omit North Dakota, South Carolina, and Utah. These three states thus appear to represent the low-water mark in bibliography of American state publications.

Apparently not one of them has shown any interest in the matter or produced any discoverable attempt to make a list or index of its official publications.

Part IV, "Foreign Countries," fills nearly half of Mr. Childs's pamphlet. Seventy-three countries are represented, as against fifty-nine in the 1930 edition, and in the "General" section are noted the considerable printed results of fourteen attempts, chiefly of library origin, to record the publications either of all countries or of certain groups of countries. The fact that most of these ambitious projects originated in very recent years fairly indicates the rapidly increasing importance ascribed to the early, accurate, and complete-as-possible record of worldwide government documents. It would seem significant (though the reviewer is not exactly sure of what!) that thirty-two of the seventy-three countries which regularly list or index their national documents are Great Britain and her colonies and dominions. The showing of catalogs, indexes, and calendars for Great Britain alone is most impressive.

Mention should be made of the five titles on page 13 listing the publications of the Confederate States of America and of the listing on pages 77-78 of the publications of the League of Nations, with their puzzling bibliographic crudities and peculiarities and their awkward notation.

In addition to omissions already noted, it would seem that place should have been found for Adelaide R. Hasse's monumental *Index to United States Documents Relating to Foreign Affairs, 1828-61* (1914-21); for Thayer and Goodwin's *Index to Congressional Committee Hearings*; for the useful "Service Monographs" of the Institute for Government Research; for Owen's *Bibliography of Mississippi* (1899); and for Bongartz' *Checklist of Rhode Island Laws*. An apparent omission under Great Britain is *Guide to the Principal Parliamentary Papers Relating to the Dominions, 1812-1911* (1913), by M. I. Adam, John Ewing, and James Munro. So many omissions of important and obviously appropriate titles suggests a carelessness on the part of the compiler to remedy which every effort should be made in future editions, for the work is useful, unique in kind, and generally well planned and executed, and a new edition every decade would be of real service in many directions.

JAMES I. WYER

Salt Lake City, Utah

Eighth Annual Report of the Archivist of the United States for the Fiscal Year Ending June 30, 1942. ("National Archives Publications," No. 23.) Washington: Government Printing Office, 1943. Pp. vii+92. Free on application to the Division of Information and Publications, National Archives.

The National Archives now has the custody of approximately 80 per cent of all federal records over fifty years old in the District of Columbia, all World War I federal records except those of the War Trade Board, and the major part of the noncurrent records of most important bureaus. About one-third of the entire present holdings were deposited in the year ending June 30, 1942. Among the most important additions for the year are records from the War and Navy departments and the main body of the General Land Office records up to 1908. A complete inventory of accessions is given in the Appendix.

About 40 per cent of the estimated recording capacity of 895,000 cubic feet in the National Archives Building is still available for future transfers. Just prior to Pearl Harbor, however, it was estimated that the federal government was even then producing more than twice as many cubic feet of records per annum as the total capacity of the Archives Building. "In size alone, therefore, the record problem of the Government is already staggering. What it will be at the end of the war is not pleasant to contemplate."

This problem of bulk in federal records is being attacked by the National Archives from two directions—first, destruction of records which have outlived their usefulness; second, preventing the creation of unnecessary records—chiefly through segregation of ephemeral from permanent records at the point of origin. Of the 65,010 items presented for appraisal during the year, 41,931 were recommended to Congress as suitable for destruction. An amendment to the records disposal act makes it unnecessary to obtain preliminary authorization from Congress where it is desired to make periodic destruction of records in a category once authorized for destruction.

Attempts to induce governmental agencies to build their record systems upon an economical and scientific basis are receiving recognition and support from a number of federal agencies interested in problems of records management, notably, the Bureau of the Budget and the Civil Service Commission. Several departments

have appointed their own "records co-ordinators," who are, in some cases, former members of the National Archives staff.

Assistance to federal agencies outside Washington through archival field work is still in an experimental stage. Several members of the staff made trips to various sections of the country and to the Caribbean area to study the needs and possibilities. One person was stationed at San Francisco to assist Pacific Coast departments with record problems arising from the war emergency.

Among the efforts to improve the quality of service on records already in the National Archives, probably the most important is the appointment of separate officials to plan, co-ordinate, and review functions that are common to all the sixteen divisions having the custody of records—records administration; accessioning, disposal, and preservation; arrangement and description; and reference service.

In addition to the always valuable publications of the National Archives on technical phases of archival administration (particularly as relates to war problems) and the *Federal Register* (including consolidated editions and codifications as well as the daily edition), the National Archives has begun the publication of subject lists of its holdings. Some of these reference information circulars are as yet available only to officials of the federal government.

MARGARET C. NORTON

State Archivist
Springfield, Illinois

Third Annual Report of the Archivist of the United States as to the Franklin D. Roosevelt Library, Hyde Park, N.Y., for the Fiscal Year Ending June 30, 1942. ("National Archives Publications," No. 22.) Washington: Government Printing Office, 1943. Pp. 9. Free on application to the Division of Information and Publications, National Archives.

The Archivist of the United States reports continued progress in absorbing the extensive deposits already made by Mr. Roosevelt and records important new gifts. Among the more valuable recent accessions are the correspondence files of the President and of Mrs. Roosevelt, particularly important as reflecting political and popular reaction to governmental policies; stenographic reports of the President's

press conferences; his valuable collection of manuscripts and museum items on United States naval history; Dutchess County historical material, including papers of several Hudson River families; and newsreels and sound recordings.

The donations already received, coming chiefly from the President and his friends, have given the Franklin D. Roosevelt Library the appearance of being primarily a memorial to Roosevelt the man. Since the institution is primarily dependent for support upon politically granted appropriations, it might be wise for future reports to lay more stress upon the institution as a research agency collecting "historical material contemporary with and relating to the historical material acquired from the donor," as stated in the act establishing the library.

MARGARET C. NORTON

State Archivist
Springfield, Illinois

Mexican Government Publications: A Guide to the More Important Publications of the National Government of Mexico, 1821-1936. By ANNITA MELVILLE KER. Washington: Library of Congress and Government Printing Office, 1940. Pp. xxi+333. \$1.25.

This publication of the Library of Congress grew out of Miss Ker's development of earlier efforts of Mr. James Bennett Childs, chief of the Documents Division of the Library of Congress, to list and study the *memorias* of Mexico in the same detail as shown in his *The Memorias of the Republics of Central America and of the Antilles*, published by the Library of Congress in 1932.

Thanks to a fellowship grant from the committee on fellowships of the American Library Association, Miss Ker was able to take up the task where Mr. Childs had laid it down, with this guide as the result.

Her Introduction to the book states plainly that

this is a guide to selected official publications of the Mexican national government from 1821 to 1936, inclusive: 1821 was taken as a starting point because it is the date of the consummation of Mexican independence; 1936 is the terminal because it was the last full year that had elapsed before the completion of this work. Documents published by Maximilian's government are not included, but instead are listed what could be found of the publications of the Juárez government of the same period.

The guide falls into four principal parts: the official gazette and the publications of the legislative, of the executive, and of the judicial branches of government. For each of these comes first a general statement about the branch as a whole, with chapters following on their major constituent parts.

In some respects it is more important to note exclusions than inclusions. Publications of the national university, for instance, are omitted, as well as those of other institutions of learning, even when they are official. This policy extends to publications of academies and societies under government protection or supervision, publications of the national museum, of the federal district, and of various special departments of government.

The volume is a guide, much more than a mere list of *diarios* and *gacetas* and *memorias*. It gives a brief history of the office in question, locating copies in every case in which it reports on them. It includes a selection, rather than an absolutely complete list, of the printed reports of a given office. Theoretically, that may be a handicap; practically, it is the sensible thing to do. If a title is cited here, you know where to turn to see it. If it is not noted here, it may or may not be a reliable citation; more investigation is needed—it may be a false lead or it may guide to unexpected treasure.

The limit here is to official gazettes, regular messages of the president to the congress, annual reports of the cabinet officers, transactions of the congress, significant publications of individual departments, and current serial publications. Within these clearly defined fields the *Guide* is probably more nearly complete than any other printed guide or index. None to equal it comes to mind. Stay-at-homes may wish that the record had been more inclusive; but undoubtedly the result is all the better for this wise principle of selection so consistently followed and so admirably presented.

The author's study carried her from Washington to New York, New Haven, Cambridge, and Boston on the north; to the Bancroft Library at Berkeley (by way of interlibrary loan); to Texas and New Orleans on the south. Finally, visits were made to twenty-four public collections in Mexico and to various private collections.

It would, perhaps, have added little to the reference value of the work, but would undoubtedly have furnished much human interest to the story, if she could have found time or space to

tell us something about the people she found guarding these treasures and something about the men responsible for the collections, who brought them together perhaps in line of duty or perhaps because their instinct for collecting or research had led them to see the importance and significance of such materials of an forgotten past.

To say nothing about the tons of dust she must surely have moved and shifted as she struggled with these records of another generation.

H. M. LYDENBERG

*Biblioteca Benjamin Franklin
Mexico, D.F.*

A Bibliography of Latin American Bibliographies. By C. K. JONES. 2d ed. ("Library of Congress Hispanic Foundation, Latin American Series," No. 2.) Washington: Government Printing Office, 1942. Pp. 311. \$0.40.

Only students of Latin-American affairs appreciate the difficulties which confront the researcher who attempts to sift and find an exact reference among the superabundant lists of items concerned with Latin America. In no field of learning is a bibliographical guide more useful; particularly is a bibliography of bibliographies of extreme help. Hence this revised edition of a work first published in 1922 (with succeeding supplements) in the *Hispanic American Historical Review* is most welcome to scholars and librarians.

In its present form the work includes bibliographies, collections of bibliographies, histories of literature, and miscellaneous reference works, such as encyclopedias, *anuarios*, *almanagues*, etc. There are more than three thousand different titles, and, while the *Bibliography* does not pretend to be all-inclusive, the compiler has succeeded in listing the most useful leading works. The items, with brief descriptive comments, are arranged under sixteen headings by divisions or countries, with an introductory statement in each section indicating special national guides to bibliographical materials and to other relevant information. An Index of thirty closely printed double-column pages supplies a helpful guide to the authors mentioned.

Being one of the most modest of scholars, the compiler has expressed his indebtedness to many people (among them James A. Granier, who

gave invaluable assistance); but the bibliographical genius of Dr. Jones himself is everywhere in evidence. The book will prove indispensable to librarians and teachers alike, and Dr. Jones should be congratulated for making his vast fund of bibliographical knowledge available to all workers in this important field.

A. CURTIS WILGUS

George Washington University

Command and General Staff School Military Review. Fort Leavenworth, Kans.: Command and General Staff School. \$3.00 per year

Published by the "highest academic training school" of the United States Army, this important technical military journal is now increasing its scope in conformity with that of its parent institution. For many years a quarterly, the *Military Review* became a monthly with the April, 1943, issue. Although the journal is naturally of primary interest to the military reader, many of its articles will be of almost equal interest to the civilian who wishes to keep abreast of the latest methods of modern warfare.

Approximately half of each issue is composed of original articles covering a wide range of technical military problems and many aspects of army organization and administration. Many of the authors are members of the school's faculty, but articles are also contributed by officers from various branches of the service. Another substantial and interesting section is devoted to reprints and translations of technical articles from the military publications of many nations—among which German sources are well represented. Throughout, the *Review* is copiously illustrated with charts and diagrams.

For the librarian the bibliographical section will prove most useful. It contains book reviews, a "library bulletin" of books added to the collections of the Command and General Staff School, a catalog of selected periodical articles on military subjects, both in technical journals and in general periodicals, and a detailed subject index to these journals. The reference librarian should find this index a valuable guide to up-to-the-minute information on the rapidly expanding science of warfare.

CARLETON B. JOECKEL

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University of Chicago

Fifty Years of Molière Studies: A Bibliography, 1892-1941. By PAUL SAINTONGE and ROBERT WILSON CHRIST. ("Johns Hopkins Studies in Romance Literatures and Languages," Extra Vol. XXX.) Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1942. Pp. 313. \$3.50.

That an extensive and excellent bibliography of Molière studies should appear in the midst of a world conflict is like a comforting prophecy of good to come. It seems highly significant that Molière, whose lucid knowledge of humanity did not embitter him and who in his philosophy steered the difficult course between the extremes of good and evil to the attainment of a true serenity, should again be the subject of long and painstaking research, undertaken not only to aid scholars but to bring students more readily into contact with the great accumulation of resources now available. When the war is over and reasonable pursuits can again be wholeheartedly undertaken, those who return to the study of seventeenth-century French literature will find the way made easier. Such an effort by scholars in America to keep alive the best French traditions reminds one inevitably of the current of intelligent skepticism which passed from the classics to Montaigne and Rabelais and, surviving the persecutions of intolerance and prejudice thanks to a Charron here and a Molière there, reached practical as well as literary expression in Voltaire and a culmination in the ideas of fraternity, liberty, and equality.

The authors of *Fifty Years of Molière Studies* have taken up the burden of Molière bibliography at the point where Arthur Desfeuilles laid it down in 1892, making their work dovetail into this general *Notice bibliographique*¹ and also into the few special ones that have appeared since. They have avoided unnecessary repetition, particularly in regard to editions, such information being easily accessible; but they have, on the other hand, filled in gaps, not hesitating to incorporate early items overlooked by Desfeuilles and to include and classify articles from *Le Moliériste*. Access to European libraries being impossible, the periodical information is necessarily incomplete, but such items are numerous and include significant newspaper criticism as well as that found in other periodicals. Indeed, the *Bibliography* makes no claim

¹ Molière, *Œuvres*. Nouvelle édition ... par MM. Eugène Despois et Paul Mesnard. Tome XI. ("Les grands écrivains de la France.") Paris: Hachette, 1893.

to completeness on any score; but I think it quite safe to say that no item of any real consequence has been omitted (even unpublished doctoral theses have been included), and the material offered is made the more impressive by the wise discarding of the great mass of reviews and other less valuable contributions.

The arrangement of the material is very satisfactory. The plan is substantially that of Desfeilles, but the arrangement is more logical, and the use of subtitles, the numbering of items, and an alphabetical, rather than chronological, system make the new work far more convenient. There are three main divisions or chapters: "Biography," "Criticism," and "Critical Works on Specific Plays," which are followed by "Miscellanea" and "Appendices." Under "Biography" are all the familiar problems provocative of so many heated discussions and too well known to mention. Especially useful are the sections treating of Molière in relation to his contemporaries and in particular to Racine and Corneille.

Since the material in the second and third chapters is closely related, some repetition and occasional cross-references were found necessary. The first subdivision under "Criticism" deals with general sources, mainly Italian, Spanish, and Latin; then follows a bibliography of general criticism—one of the richest sections. The third subheading, "General Ideas," might, I think, have been called preferably "Philosophy and Religion." Other subdivisions dealing with doctors, women, and staging follow, and then the remainder of the chapter is devoted mainly to the influence of Molière in other countries than his own. And the chapter closes with "Miscellaneous Questions," a highly entertaining scrapbag, in which Molière keeps company with Rembrandt, Charlie Chaplin, Thomas Jefferson, and the Annamites and serves as the subject of tapestries.

It is particularly in the handling of criticism of specific plays that the pleasing flexibility of the *Bibliography* makes itself felt, although this agreeable characteristic is to be found throughout. Not that the authors have anywhere permitted themselves the amusing comments so characteristic of Alfredo Panzini's *Dizionario moderno* or that they have attempted a descriptive bibliography, but the reader discerns with pleasure that the authors have very considerably bent the rigidity of bibliographical form to suit his needs. Where a title is puzzling, as

No. 1349 ("Un nouveau mystificateur"), a brief explanatory note follows. In No. 2813—a collection of interviews—a list of the persons interviewed is appended; and where various contributions have been gathered under one heading (No. 2539) there is attached a list of the individual contributors and their subjects. Occasionally, as in No. 11, reviews of a certain work may be included. At the risk of seeming repetitious the authors have analyzed works of general criticism, scattering the various chapters through the *Bibliography* under appropriate headings. This technique has a double value—that of convenience and that of familiarizing a younger student with the names of recent writers whose contributions to Molière studies have been most significant, such as, to name only a few, Abel Lefranc, Michaut, Rigal, Bidou, Brisson, and Georges Monval in France; Hans Heiss and Walter Küchler in Germany; Cesare Levi and Francesco Picco in Italy; Ramon Fernandez in Spain; and, in our own country, Lancaster, Nitze, and Chapman.

This same flexibility is felt, as I have said, particularly in the third chapter, where the foot is never forced to fit the shoe. Each play presents its own characteristic problems, and the subheads under the most important plays differ greatly: preciosity in one case; interpretation in another; sources, characters, and ecclesiastical history in another; and, elsewhere, technique and interpretation.

The fourth chapter, "Miscellanea," might have been entitled "Tributes to Molière," consisting, as it does, of *hommages* in the form of verse, plays, and some 271 writings occasioned by the Tercentenary of 1922. In the "Appendices" are French editions not to be found in other bibliographies, some American editions, and, finally, adaptations and records of performances which have been of such caliber as to provoke comment. One would like to be able to conclude something from this as to Molière's popularity on our stage, but the list is too incomplete. Nevertheless, the items listed are sufficient proof of Molière's persistent charm. Coquelin brought us *Les Précieuses ridicules* and *Le Tartuffe* in 1893; Mansfield, *Le Misanthrope* in 1906; Dullin, with the Théâtre du Vieux Colombier, *L'Avare* in 1918, and Feraudy the same play in 1924. In the same year Stark Young produced *George Dandin*. In 1917 *Sganarelle* was given by the Washington Square Players, and just ten years ago the Theater

Guild turned to Molière, producing both the *School for Husbands* and *Love's Jailer* (*L'Amour médecin*).

The appearance of *Fifty Years of Molière Studies* is excellent and there are very few misprints.² In some cases books are referred to several times before the entry in which full bibliographical information is given about them. It might be worth while to add to the first mention of such a work the number of the entry in which such information is to be found. The field of Molière studies has been so thoroughly culled that omitted articles worthy of inclusion are not numerous. In *Critica*, XXVIII (1930), 293-94, is an interesting criticism of Kuchler's *Molière* by B. C. And in the same periodical (XXIV [1926], 179 ff.) Francesco Flora discusses P. Kohler's *Autour de Molière*. *L'Italia letteraria* (July 6, 1930) contains a good article by Paolo Milano, "Intorno a Molière." To item No. 1265 might be added an article by G. Brognoligo, "Nuovi studi goldoniani," in the *Fanfulla della domenica* (September 14, 1913), in which are reviewed and contrasted De Vico's work and A. Momigliano's "I Limiti dell'arte goldoniana," in *Scritti vari in onore di R. Renier* (Torino: Fratelli Bocca, 1912). A number of other Italian articles on Molière not included in this bibliography will be found in Fucilla's *Universal Author Repertoire of Italian Essay Literature* (New York: S. F. Vanni, 1941). The latest publishers' catalogs for England and America fail to show any important new book³ on Molière.

A casual comparison of the contents of the Desfeuilles *Notice bibliographique* and the present *Bibliography* suffices to show new tendencies in modern Molière scholarship. The minutiae of Molière's life excite less attention than heretofore (the quest for documents was fairly well completed in the past century). On the other hand, H. C. Lancaster's work on the drama of the seventeenth century has made possible more accurate source study than ever before. Much has been written recently by way of interpretation of Molière both in a scholarly and in a pop-

ular vein, and there has been a noticeable increase in medical and psychoanalytical treatises. It will be interesting to see what effect the present war will have on the trend of Molière studies.

HILDA L. NORMAN

University of Chicago

France, 1715-1815: A Guide to Materials in Cleveland. By JOHN HALL STEWART. ("Flora Mather College Historical Studies.") Cleveland: Western Reserve University Press, 1942. Pp. xxxiii+522. \$5.00.

A bibliography of materials on the history of France between 1715 and 1815 to be found in the libraries of Western Reserve University, the Western Reserve Historical Society, and the public library of Cleveland might seem to be a waste of valuable time and money. But a brief survey of Professor Stewart's book soon corrects that impression. This was an important period in European history, including, as it does, the end of the Old Regime, the French Revolution, and Napoleon; and there is a surprisingly large amount of useful material on the period in Cleveland. The library of Western Reserve University has a fine collection of French sources, and there is a large collection of Napoleonic material at the Western Reserve Historical Society. As a result, we are offered a bibliography of far greater general usefulness than its title might indicate.

The mechanics and organization of this book add to that usefulness, and future compilers of historical bibliographies might well use this one as a model. In addition to the usual chronological divisions there are subdivisions according to types of sources, primary or secondary, and according to topics. Numerous cross-references and a hundred-page Index make it an even more useful aid.

This is a selective bibliography, and many of the less valuable works have presumably been omitted; but it is unfortunate that critical notes and comments were not included for at least some of the titles. There is no more than the irreducible minimum of errors in a work of this sort. The volume is well constructed, and the economies of publication have not detracted from its appearance.

GORDON H. MCNEIL

Denison University

² As this book will certainly pass through various editions, closer proofreading of the following items is suggested: Nos. 358, 417, 766, 1228, 1246, 1253, 1261, 1468, 1628, 1641, 2067, 2058, 2134, and 2486.

³ *The Miser: A Three Act Comedy, Arranged and Adapted by Walter F. Kerr.* Chicago: Dram. Pub. Co., 1942. *Doctor in Spite of Himself, a New Adaptation by B. Hewitt.* Evanston, Ill.: Row, Peterson, 1941.

The Public Library System of Great Britain: A Report on Its Present Condition with Proposals for Post-war Reorganization. By LIONEL R. MCCOLVIN. London: Library Association, 1942. Pp. 218. 5s.

Since the beginning of the first World War four reports or surveys have been published prior to this one dealing with library service in the British Isles. The first, by W. G. K. Adams, entitled *A Report on Library Provision and Policy* (1915), was made to the Carnegie United Kingdom Trustees and led to the stimulation of county libraries through grants from the Trust and to the removal in 1919 of the penny rate for public library purposes. The second, *A Report on the Public Library System of Great Britain and Ireland* (1921-23) by J. M. Mitchell, was prepared for the Trustees in order to determine the status of county library development and to provide statistical data concerning public libraries which might be of use to a committee on adult education which it had been intimated would be appointed by the Board of Education in 1923 to consider the place of the library in adult education. In 1927 a third report, by the Public Libraries Committee of the Board of Education, dealt with the libraries of England and Wales. A reprint of the report, with supplementary data from 1927 to 1935, was issued in the latter year, and in 1936-37 the Library Association included in its notable *Survey of Libraries* extensive data concerning libraries in England, Scotland, Wales, and the North of Ireland.

The first report dealt specifically with the availability of library service and the removal of the limitation upon the tax rate, but the other three studies were largely statistical and informative and did not present detailed proposals for the complete reorganization of the public library system.

The present report, made in 1942 by Lionel R. McColvin, honorary secretary of the Library Association, city librarian of Westminster, author of a number of books on various library subjects, and general editor of the *Survey of Libraries*, was made possible by the United Kingdom Trust. Although Mr. McColvin was a member of the Emergency Committee of the Library Association and was aided by many librarians in assembling the data contained in the *Report*, he assumes complete responsibility for it and for the proposed plan of reorganization of the library system in the post-war period.

The *Report* is too extensive to be summarized completely in these columns. This is hardly necessary, however, since a careful summary has been prepared by the Council of the Library Association and published in the December, 1942, issue of the *Library Association Record*. It is important, however, for American librarians to understand with what aspects of librarianship it deals and to know specifically what Mr. McColvin has proposed for the post-war period.

The subject matter of the *Report* is presented in four parts. Part I sets forth clearly the purposes and values of library service. If American librarians are not sure what the objectives and values of library service are, Mr. McColvin is, and he has set down clearly and succinctly what may well be described as a philosophy of librarianship for a democratic society. As summarized by the Council this philosophy is stated as follows:

1. A substantial part of the experience, achievement, wisdom and imagination of the past and present can be and is made available in books, and failure to provide access to this is wasteful to the community and to civilization.
2. The public library can afford people of all ages, occupations and circumstances, whatever advantages and opportunities books and information can give them, thus helping them to be well developed, interested and happy individuals, useful members of the community and good citizens.
3. Consequently an efficient, readily accessible and comprehensive library service, hospitable to all phases of thought, is an essential element in a progressive society.
4. The public library should exist not merely to encourage people to read but to enable them to grasp fully the opportunities of education, environment and personal inclination. Therefore the supply of books should have the widest possible scope and the utmost freedom and should have no limiting alliances or objectives.
5. The public library if properly provided presents each reader with a full and ordered conspectus of human achievement and aspiration, which can be obtained in no other way.

Part I ends with a discussion of the essential differences between the educational values of library service and those of the school; and Mr. McColvin states his conviction that "however much the field of genuine adult education may expand, any subordination or amalgamation of education and library work would inevitably stultify one or both."

Part II, comprising chapters ii-xiii, deals

with the present status of library service. Coverage, standards, library units, county and urban library systems, book collections, special departments and services, work with children, buildings, methods, facilities, staff, financial support, library co-operation, and a summary of present conditions and the factors producing them are described objectively and realistically. Although the past and present achievement of the existing libraries has been significant, the author concludes that the effectiveness of the system is subject to serious limitations. Among these limitations the following are especially notable: There are a number of people who are entirely without public library service; there are many others with very inadequate service; library services are provided by far too many small, unco-ordinated authorities; book stocks frequently fail to meet the requirements of the public; many inhabitants and library authorities do not possess a real understanding of the values of libraries; adequate financial support is frequently not provided, owing to this lack of understanding or to the limited economic resources of the areas which the libraries serve; local libraries have no central governmental department to which they can look for expert guidance or for financial aid in the development of a national system; the rewards in the field of library service are generally insufficient to attract an adequate body of qualified personnel to carry out an effective program of library development on a national scale.

Part III, "Proposals for the Future," presents in detail proposals to remedy the conditions and to make possible the achievement of the desired ends in the post-war world. In order to insure what may be considered an adequate national library system, the author submits, among others, the following proposals.

The marked inequalities which characterize present service must be eliminated, and adequate library service must be made available to everyone, regardless of his place of residence. The existing 604 library areas or units should be reduced to 93. Each unit should contain a population group numbering between 300,000 and 800,000. It should usually be a natural trade area and accessible to all the population, and its financial resources should be sufficient to provide book collections to meet the demands of the varied interests of the clientele and to insure the employment of a sufficient number of qualified, graded personnel, both men and women,

professional and nonprofessional, to carry out an effective library program. The area should be served by an appropriate headquarters, a main central library, and branches, centers, and traveling libraries sufficient to give all the inhabitants easy access to suitable book collections. If possible, the enlarged library unit should coincide with the enlarged unit of local government which it is hoped may be provided for other services in the post-war period and should be governed by one representative library authority. Failing this, the 93 larger library units proposed should be formed by the amalgamation of existing units. Staff members should be recruited, trained, classified, and paid in relation to the services and qualifications required.

The relation of the local unit to the national government, the sphere of activity of the national central library, the establishment of a limited number of special reference libraries, and a program of training for the necessary personnel are also considered in the plan. Responsibility for the provision of local service should be placed upon the individual units. The department of the national government should act in an advisory capacity and provide grants-in-aid where these are required to insure adequate service. The national central library should be responsible for the publication of catalog cards, which could be secured by the various units, for union catalogs and bibliographical services, and for supplying books which cannot be supplied by the local or special-reference libraries. Library schools offering a two-year course should be provided to furnish sufficient personnel.

Part IV, "Libraries in War-Time," deals, as the title indicates, with the situation in which libraries find themselves under the impact of war. The section is interesting in that it affords a detailed description, but it might well have been included in Part II, in which general conditions are presented.

The *Report* as a whole, running from 130,000 to 135,000 words in length, may well be read and studied by American librarians, particularly by the members of the A.L.A. Committee on Post-war Planning and by others whose primary interest is centered upon the extension and improvement of library service. Lack of library access for some of the population, thinness of "coverage" for other population groups, larger local units with greater financial ability, more

extensive co-ordination among local libraries, advisory service, and grants-in-aid through a department of the national government—all are matters which American librarians have considered in recent years and to which it is inevitable that they will give more attention in the immediate future. That there will be a wide diversity of opinion concerning the proposals made by Mr. McColvin is to be taken for granted, but there will be general agreement that he has made a thorough analysis of the present situation and that he has boldly conceived what he hopes may be at least a tentative blueprint for the development of a national system of libraries adequate to meet national needs.

LOUIS R. WILSON

University of North Carolina

The Librarian and His Committee. By ERNEST A. SAVAGE. London: Grafton & Co., 1942. Pp. vii + 254. 12/6.

This recent book on library administration from the press of Messrs. Grafton and Company, who have made so many valuable additions to the librarian's professional shelf, is both timely and readable. It is a British production based on British library conditions and customary procedure, with a perhaps natural Scots coloring, due to Mr. Savage's long association with Edinburgh. The average library assistant in North America will not find that details of routines parallel those with which he is familiar, but the administrative librarian and the member of the library committee may well read, with enjoyment and profit, this clear and well-arranged account of how the things that they do here are done "over there." For Mr. Savage, in spite of his instances (often amusing), never loses sight of principles or high professional aims. What matter if the illustrations come from Edinburgh, Glasgow, Dundee, Birmingham, Sheffield, Bristol, or Croydon? They find their counterpart in New York and San Francisco and all points between, and across the border in Canada as well.

The book is really a product of two factors brought together by circumstances: one is the long, varied, and responsible experience of the author (who is a past president of the Library Association and was librarian of the Edinburgh

public libraries for twenty years); and the other is the war, which involved frequent and long blackouts during the winter of 1941 and forced Mr. Savage to find some absorbing occupation which would help banish from his mind the too-constant thoughts of war. He hit upon the plan of this book, and, echoing Samson, who found honey in the carcass of a lion, he has brought forth the sweetness of mature thought from the disintegrating experiences of modern warfare.

The first part of the book deals with the library committee and the procedures and problems which it involves. These chapters contain much practical advice regarding the ethical relations of the librarian to his committee or council, to its chairman, and to architects, contractors, and others associated with the choice of a site for a library, the construction of the building, and the proper maintenance of its services. He points his morals with British examples, but it is not unlikely that this continent could equal or surpass his instances of dubious library practice when politics get the better of sound administrative routine.

Mr. Savage wisely reminds us that "the chairmanship is a job and not only an honourable office" (p. 25) and indicates the advantages of long-term chairmanships, when wisely filled, over the rotation of short-period chairmen. The relations between the chairman and the librarian are dealt with in detail, both as concerns the agenda and conduct of meetings and as concerns the necessary business that must be transacted in the intervals between meetings. He gives helpful hints as to methods of arranging reports and business and suggests various ways of preventing the personal equation of the chairman from interfering with the conclusion of business or the effective functioning of the library.

The volume includes a chapter on "Finances," dealing with the budget, tenders, supplies, and accounts, and another on "Library Reports." Perhaps every librarian needs, at some time or other, to be reminded that a library report must have a plan and must indicate definite thought expressed in clear, lucid language and not in stereotyped professional jargon filled with stock phrases and self-praise. The chapter on "Library Buildings" contains many wise remarks on the location of the library and its branches and the area served, which are as applicable in America as in Great Britain. The disadvantages of the joint occupancy of a building by a library and a museum, art gallery,

or technical institute are wisely stressed; and, looking back upon the bad library buildings that were erected between 1895 and 1914, Mr Savage considers some of the problems that the librarian has to face in dealing with an architect.

Let the world's most celebrated architect put up the noblest library building the mind of an artist can conceive; then if it is incurably ill-ventilated it is a failure; if dark and gloomy inside it is a failure; if the apartments are wrongly correlated it is a failure; and if ostentatious, with echoing passages, grand staircases, and reverberant halls, it is a failure [p. 114].

Fortunately, there are examples of recent British construction that give ground for optimism—and not all the bad library buildings are to be found on the eastern side of the Atlantic Ocean.

About forty-five pages are devoted to "Book Selection," a subject about which there is no dearth of publications in the United States. Savage wisely distinguishes between popularity and education values—"The best nucleus for a home-reading library comprises books each of which combines both values in high degree" (p. 120)—and he cautions the librarian to keep the supply up to date and to maintain it in an attractive condition. He then discusses the implications of fiction-buying and comes to the considered conclusion that only the best fiction should find a place in public libraries and that people who want cheap and trashy reading should pay for it at the rental libraries. His advice on the preparation of booklists for the committee is based upon the somewhat restricted practices prevalent in Britain, and he recommends that greater freedom be given to the experienced librarians in the selection of books for his library.

The section on the selection, appointment, and salaries of the staff will be of little use in American libraries, where conditions are so different; but it is interesting to note that he criticizes the product of the English system of training and is convinced that "the best methods of training librarians and bibliographers are those proper to the laboratory supervised by vigilant, active teachers, fertile in ideas themselves, and receptive of them from others" (p. 162). Let us take this advice to heart and keep our library schools from falling into the professional rut of routine, endeavoring not merely to keep pace with contemporary changes but to anticipate

future professional developments in the training of leaders.

After discussing such matters as interviewing applicants, methods of promotion, salary scales, and the relative salaries of men and women (still an unsolved enigma), he refers to the question of incentives and professional rewards: "A librarian ought to find contentment, serenity, and activity of mind" (p. 201) in his daily task, which should provide him with variety, responsibility, and the possibility of personal development, so that the library is, for him, both a school and a laboratory, as well as a place of work in which his ability is rewarded by increased salary and wider responsibility. He concludes with a brief consideration of good will in both staff and leaders, some simple and practical methods of effective and appropriate publicity, and rules for good personal service on the part of the librarian and his assistants.

The whole book is rich with the gathered harvest of long experience, and the account of library routines is leavened with vivid phraseology, which arouses a sympathetic smile in other librarians who have been through the same mill. A few examples will convince the reader that a book even on such a restricted subject as library administration can be made readable and provocative of thought. The time perhaps has come when we would do well to see ourselves a little oftener as others see us. Who has not seen the librarian or an assistant who "follows a chieftain . . . and is Mary's little lamb" or has not been wearied with committee business which "is bandied from chamber to antechamber until it grows whiskers"? Though "you cannot gate-crash into a caucus," nevertheless, "if dull enough, you can get away with almost anything." But we are cautioned to remember not to "read in a curate's gabble" and that "statistics are scientific fairy-tales"; and to avoid "those enthusiasts, inoculated against boredom, who haunt committee-rooms under the delusion that talking is acting." But, as Savage also reminds us that "garrulity and a flowing pen are damnable hindrances to business," this is perhaps the appropriate point at which to conclude an appreciative review of a book whose "wise saws and modern instances" make it a valuable contribution to professional literature.

GERHARD R. LOMER

McGill University Libraries

Liberty and Learning: The Activities of the American Civil Liberties Union in Behalf of Freedom of Education. By DAVID EDISON BUNTING. Washington: American Council on Public Affairs, [1942]. Pp. viii+147. \$2.50 (cloth); \$2.00 (paper).

Within the confines of less than one hundred and fifty pages, the author of this book presents in a compact form a well-authenticated, factual account of the purpose, functions, and achievements of the American Civil Liberties Union as an agent of educational freedom.

Although the Union has from its very beginning been actively concerned with the problem of academic freedom as an integral part of civil liberties, it found it desirable in 1924 to appoint a special Committee on Academic Freedom in order to strengthen its campaign for educational freedom through the backing of the eminent educators serving on this committee. It is particularly with the activities resulting from this development that this book deals.

The philosophy underlying the freedom of education, as understood by the Union, is to be found in the Bill of Rights and in the democratic mode of life, which presupposes an educational system "cultivating an intelligent criticism of our social institutions." On this basis the Union stated in 1934 in its "Principles of Academic Freedom":

The imposition of arbitrary checks upon freedom of teaching, criticism, and public propagation of belief makes it impossible for teachers to develop the traits of leadership—*independence, insight, and initiative*—for which the community looks to them today. . . . It is . . . imperative in the present era of social transition to define, extend, and defend the rights and responsibility of all participants in the educational process.

In formulating this statement and the "guiding principles" (dealing with the administrative control of teaching, religion in schools, rights of students, teachers' oaths of loyalty, and teachers' organizations) proposed to meet the objectives sought, the Union seems to have proceeded in a remarkably sober manner. Not only did it solicit the advice and criticism of university administrators willing to answer its request, but it went on record as declaring that it was "well aware that no absolute principles can be laid down" but that "every specific case must be judged as it arises in the light of relevant factors."

The means through which the Union has functioned in carrying out its aim are twofold: (1) a general educational campaign based on a

program of researches, publications, and conferences; (2) the treatment of specific situations of violations of academic freedom, involving investigations, negotiations, publicity, and legal aid in particular cases. In carrying out these activities the Union has aroused much antagonism and has often, rightly or wrongly, been subjected to severe criticism because of its tendency to give immediate and flamboyant publicity to issues not yet thoroughly investigated. The author, who throughout the book maintains an admirable objectivity, sounds a warning note against this danger.

When it comes to the actual achievements of the A.C.L.U., a feeling of futility may well tend to inundate its sympathizers, a feeling of scorn swell its opponents. The Union has never succeeded in securing the reinstatement of a teacher unjustly dismissed; it lost its most famous battle—the Scopes anti-evolution case; it has unsuccessfully fought the loyalty oaths for teachers; and it has tried to make public school auditoriums equally accessible to all organizations without much avail. Other issues, such as the campaign against compulsory military training in the schools, one cannot but think might better have been left untouched. But failures and mistakes are not the whole story. If the Scopes trial was lost legally, it was won intellectually. If cases suffered defeat, interest in causes was stirred. It cannot be doubted that A.C.L.U.'s leader, Roger Baldwin, is right in asserting:

It is obvious that academic freedom in every aspect is vastly stronger today than twenty years ago. The professional organizations are more alert; the tenure laws are stricter; administrators rarely dare raise the issue of views or political activities of teachers; the conditions for maintaining freedom are better defined and accepted by college boards and presidents; pressures on the public schools have had little effect under the loyalty oath, evolution and other laws.

Nor is it unreasonable to conclude that the activities of the Union have contributed materially to these improved conditions.

Bunting's book, because of its honesty and perspicacity, is an important document in revealing facts and figures concerning an important agent of freedom in America. But its real significance lies in its presentation of more than facts—an idea, a point of view. We cannot victoriously fight an enemy whose youth believes firmly and fanatically in the Nazi ideology without an opposing faith of equal strength and greater stimulation. Such an idea is dynamic and progressive democracy. Bunting, therefore,

is right in his concluding statement that teachers (and among them we may well count librarians) must themselves take the lead and in so doing must go beyond the rather restricted bounds of the A.C.L.U. "They," he says, "as professional masters of their craft, should not only strive for the maintenance of educational freedom; they must also use it in such a way as to promote the purposes of democratic society in an ever-changing world."

JENS NYHOLM

University of California

Slaves Need No Leaders: An Answer to the Fascist Challenge to Education. By WALTER M. KOTSCHNIG. New York: Oxford University Press, 1943. Pp. xv + 284. \$2.75.

Books like this bring a sharp realization of how the catastrophe of war can distill the vapors of controversy. Pearl Harbor united a divided country, but we are paying in blood for an irresponsible isolationism. Our present experience is teaching us that we must assume a more responsible position in future world government. This is coming a long way in a short time.

Must we always, like children, suffer burned fingers in finding out that a stove is hot? We are still debating the issue of federal aid to education, aimed at equalizing opportunity in our own country. With that issue still in doubt, we are now confronted with a book which not only urges "federal aid" but proposes an "International Office of Education and Culture" fortified with funds to assist in raising educational standards throughout the world. Is such a book hopelessly premature?

Those who might think that this subject, at least, might be postponed until the pressing political, economic, and nutritional problems are settled, should study Kotschnig's early chapters describing the appalling conditions under which European children are attempting to grow up today. The reports of the Nazi perversion of education in Germany and their malevolent treatment of it in the conquered countries may not be news but, presented as a composite picture, can hardly fail to shock even the most callous reader.

He shows, further, that this task of reconstructing the educational machinery of the warring countries is not just a phase of a large problem—it is at the heart of it. No matter how enlightened the political and economic settlements

turn out to be, they will fail if they are not supported by a public opinion which is based on sound education. If this is a war of ideologies and the democratic ideology wins, then it must consolidate its gains by building a firm educational foundation. This is the theme of the book, and for that reason its reading should not be limited to educators; it requires the attention of all.

What kind of education? Naturally, the approach will differ in different countries. Kotschnig propounds, in a masterly way, his theory of what ails the German people psychologically, what is back of the explosions which have periodically begun in that area, and what may be done educationally toward correcting the condition. He is strongly opposed to a Carthaginian peace, is willing to try a modification of Adamic's "two-way passage" plan, and strongly favors making use of the valid elements in German education while eliminating the savage and the false elements. He is aware that the conquered countries will present different problems, resulting from starvation, oppression, and deep emotional tensions. He indicates the directions in which progress must be made in the United Nations in order to gain continued support for the world view necessary to successful reconstruction. He believes that Britain shows more promise in this respect than does the United States. Russia and China will be too busy rebuilding their devastated territories to play much of a part in European affairs. One general principle he insists upon: There must be a broad cultural training given to the greatest number of people, the kind of education which "can prepare people to make rational choices within the framework of existing socio-economic conditions, rather than be prompted by irrational impulses and wishful thinking."

The book can do no more than lay down a broad background for the consideration of this enormous task. We shall look forward to a more detailed plan. For example, what will be the role of adult education? How will it be organized? What of the great new instruments—the film and the radio? And what of the public library; is it to be a people's university as it has been hopefully called in the United States?

In the growing literature of post-war planning, the role of education has been almost completely ignored. For that reason alone, this book deserves the widest possible audience.

R. RUSSELL MUNN

Cleveland Public Library

Exploration in Reading Patterns. By RUTH STRANG. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1942. Pp. ix+172. \$2.00.

Dr. Strang's ingeniously conceived and executed exploration in reading patterns is an effort to synthesize into a single workable technique both the statistical-group and the individual-case methods of studying reading behavior. Such a synthesis has been advocated for some time by students of social psychology (cf. S. A. Stouffer and Douglas Waples, quoted in Hans Muller, "The Social Psychology of Reading," *Library Quarterly*, XII [1942], 26), and this particular attempt deserves the most thoughtful attention.

The readers studied comprised a group of 112, varying in sex, age, schooling, occupation, economic background, and cultural interests. The method followed was a combination of objective test, controlled interview, and free introspection on the part of the subjects. The interview was conducted in the home of each subject, so that the student could observe books and magazines available, as well as evidences of economic status. A timed reading test was applied, composed of three articles longer than usual reading-test items and varied in character—a concrete objective narrative, a more subjective personal narrative (conservative "stream-of-consciousness" style), and an abstract scientific exposition simply presented. The subject's grasp of the material read was tested by spontaneous expression of the content and by true-false questions covering both basic ideas and specific detail. A vocabulary test was also given, and a reading-interest check list of fictitious magazine-article titles covering a wide range of subjects. In addition, the subject was given the chance to talk spontaneously to the interviewer about his reading, the test just taken, etc. The result represented a fairly scientific cross-section of reading ability and interest at the time of the test. Only one question—that about magazines habitually read—represented any "historic" aspect of taste or behavior.

Because of the heterogeneity of the group, individual patterns quite naturally proved too diverse for reliable statistical generalizations, though six or seven "partially supported hypotheses" emerged. Those most pertinent to the final significance of the study are given here. (1) So many elements influence reading interests and responses that any attempt to study types is likely to be unrewarding. (4) An apparent relation exists between a subject's interest in and enjoyment of an article, his estimate of

its difficulty, and his proficiency in reading it. (5) People read with their experience and their emotions (as appeared in the spontaneous reproduction of an author's thought as compared with results on true-false questions about it). (6) No one magazine is read exclusively by any one occupational, economic, age, or educational group. (7) An individual's reading pattern has a central core or radix which more or less determines its nature (pp. 2-4, *passim*).

In the course of the individual case reports and the summary tables which follow them there appears much that is deeply wise, enlightening, and profitable to the person interested in reading behavior. But it all leads to this final concluding statement:

Each of the 112 cases represents a type that might be studied if a sufficiently large number of subjects could be obtained. For example, the reading interests and abilities of 15-year-old boys in the 9th grade of a city high school, with a certain vocabulary score, native born, and of average economic and occupational status, might be studied. But even a group homogeneous in so many respects would probably show marked differences in reading ability and interests . . . [and] these differences would be due to any of a number of factors, including school instruction, family interests and ambitions, methods of discipline, number and ages of brothers and sisters, other interests, health, and still more complex personality tendencies [p. 125].

In the article referred to indirectly at the beginning of this review Dr. Muller claims, following Blumer, that the case-study and the statistical-group approach to any social phenomenon are irreconcilable, one representing the subjective or "symbolic-interaction," the other the objective or "stimulus-response," concept of human experience. That the two should be supplementary in our attempt to understand, predict, and control human behavior Dr. Muller does not for a moment deny, but he claims that they can never be used in the solution of the same problem, simply because they embody two conflicting concepts of human nature and social adjustment. Therefore, if a problem or hypothesis is attacked from one viewpoint, it will have "to be completely reformulated before the alternative [method] can be applied" (Muller, *op. cit.*, p. 27). That doctors disagree is evidenced by the opinions of Waples and Stouffer, also cited above.

In the study under consideration Dr. Strang, a teacher and student of adult reading of many years' standing and a statistician of patent strength, as well as a psychologist, has started out from choice with a methodology derived

wholly from the stimulus-response school. She has recognized the dilemma involved in combining it with case studies and has with courage and imagination seized that dilemma firmly by both horns. But it almost appears that by her own final admission she ends impaled on her rivals' prong, and it may be that the objectivists must yield the first round to Dr. Muller.

JEANNETTE H. FOSTER

Drexel Institute

Reading as a Visual Task. By MATTHEW LUCKIESH and FRANK K. MOSS. New York: D. Van Nostrand Co., Inc., 1942. Pp. xv+428. \$5.00.

Research in the psychology of reading, extending back through a period of four decades, has produced a sizable body of factual data relating to the reading process and to factors governing readability. Methodology for the teaching of reading has been greatly indebted to these researches and, chiefly through these research findings, the school has succeeded in conditioning a much more effective reading process among its pupils. Likewise, research in the field of reading has contributed to the improvement of reading materials and of the conditions under which reading is carried on, illumination in particular.

Drs. Luckiesh and Moss have brought together a body of important facts and generalizations relating to the task of reading. The authors have defined the scope of their book in the following paragraph:

Civilized progress is marked by a continual easing of many of the tasks of human beings. This change is obvious as are the benefits therefrom. At the same time the severity of visual tasks has increased. This change is less obvious as are the penalties therefrom. The advance of civilization may be described as an evolution from a natural world of distant-vision and of casual near-vision to an artificial one of prolonged critical tasks of near-vision. Among these relatively new tasks of seeing, reading is the most widespread. As such it is of great importance in itself; but it is also representative of many other critical tasks of seeing. For these reasons many of the researches of the authors have dealt primarily with reading as a visual task and with the various controllable factors which influence ease of seeing. The results presented herewith are confined chiefly to the authors' work and entirely to reading as a visual task. Other aspects, such as retention and reading disabilities, are beyond the boundaries of their work [Preface].

While a reading of the complete book gives a coherent overview of the task of reading, the

book will probably be most useful as a source of reference for librarians, teachers, publishers, and others concerned with problems of reading and reading materials.

The first four chapters of the book deal with general factors relating to reading. Here the authors review briefly the nature of the process and the physiology and anatomy of seeing. They then present a body of data on brightness, contrast, size, and time as related to illumination, paper, ink, and quality of printing. Chapter iii gives an excellent treatment of visibility, while in chapter iv the authors describe and defend the "blink" as a criterion of readability. The number of blinks was recorded by an observer, and the rate of blinking was studied under various degrees of illumination and for different types of material, kinds of type, leading, and length of line. In view of the effective use of precision instruments in the majority of experiments described later in the book, one wonders why the rather crude method of observational counting was applied in the case of blinking. Precise and objective records of blinks are quite possible to get.

Chapters v-ix of the book deal with factors related to reading materials, such as size of type, type face, leading and line length, papers and inks, and various duplicated materials. Here copious experimental data are given, the variable most commonly studied being degree of illumination.

Chapters x-xiii relate more directly to the process of reading, data being presented on eye-movements, other aspects of reading performance, and psychophysical defects associated with reading. A summary of specifications for optimum readability is included. At the end of the book is a useful glossary of technical terms and illustrative specimens of type and typography.

The authors of the book are specialists in the lighting research laboratory of the General Electric Company. As would normally be expected, the thread of interest in the book relates to illumination and its effect upon various aspects of reading. Since proper illumination is recognized as one of the important problems of libraries and schools, the contributions of the book in this respect are important and useful. In the main the comparisons for the different factors studied are given for variations in illumination of one, ten, and one hundred foot-candles as, for example, summarized on page 366. Comparisons are made using one foot-candle of illumination as the standard unit of 100

per cent. Increases in percentage of efficiency with ten and one hundred foot-candles are then indicated. The method of comparison is appropriate, but the jump from ten foot-candles to one hundred foot-candles of illumination is too great to satisfy some readers. Ten foot-candles is admittedly too little illumination for ordinary work, but one hundred foot-candles is a much higher degree of illumination than ordinary interior lighting or schoolroom daytime lighting affords. The reviewer would like to see a summary such as is given on page 366 for intermediate degrees of illumination—say, fifty and seventy-five foot-candles. The fact that one hundred foot-candles is a more efficient level of lighting than ten foot-candles does not necessarily lead to the conclusion that schoolroom and library illumination should be increased to that point.

Several very useful laboratory instruments are described in the book, including the visibility meter, the brightness meter, and the illumination meter. Students of the psychology of reading should be acquainted with these instruments, and research bureaus of school systems should have them available for use. In the measurement of eye-movements the common photographic technique has been replaced by an instrument recording the electrical current generated by the eye muscles. The resulting electromograms have certain advantages over the photographic records and certain disadvantages. The electromograms furnish clearer evidence as to the nature of muscular controls and minor deviations in muscle tension. They perhaps give better data on the nature of eye blinks, which Luckiesh and Moss use as a primary criterion of readability. However, some of the minor variations in the muscle records probably represent only changes in muscle tension, rather than actual eye-movements, and the sharpness of change from fixation to fixation is less clear than in the case of photographic records. Furthermore, there is some advantage in using photographic records if the resulting eye-movements are to be plotted on the lines of print.

The book is a valuable contribution to the literature on reading. While it is limited to the perceptual aspects of reading, these are the very factors which are most susceptible to change through education or through control of the nature of the printed page and its illumination. If read critically, the book will serve a very useful purpose.

G. T. BUSWELL

Department of Education
University of Chicago

The Organization and Administration of Library Service to Children. By MARY RINEHART LUCAS. Chicago: American Library Association, 1941. Pp. viii+107. \$1.25. (Planographed.)

Miss Lucas in this study presents and discusses the organization and administration of children's departments in twelve selected public libraries in cities of more than two hundred thousand population. Her objectives as she states them are fourfold:

1. To show the place of library service to children in the organization structure of the public library
2. To analyze the organization patterns within the children's department
3. To indicate the administrative relations between the staff responsible for service to children and other departments and agencies
4. To describe how the administrative functions required in service to children are performed, with particular reference to the groups of staff members concerned and to the tasks to which these functions apply.

The public libraries chosen were those of Providence, Toledo, Denver, Indianapolis, Cincinnati, Minneapolis, Buffalo, Washington, Pittsburgh, St. Louis, Baltimore, and New York. In each case the type of organization is described in considerable detail, with specific information regarding the various aspects of the work, including personnel administration, book selection, readers' advisers' work, general routine processes, co-operation with other departments, and publicity work. Although the study throughout is a concrete presentation of existing types of organizations and not a comparative analysis or evaluation of them, the author does include in her discussion statements of advantages and disadvantages connected with each type. She limits herself, however, to the enumeration of such advantages and disadvantages and does not enter into critical discussion as to the extent to which either are necessary corollaries of the system under which they are found. This question is in itself a pertinent one, which offers a point of departure for further study of organization plans.

It is unfortunate, in this writer's eyes, that the scope could not have been enlarged to include one or two of the west coast libraries instead of being limited to eastern and middle western sections of the country. Also, the discussion would have been more valuable had a greater emphasis been placed on specific analysis of personnel selection and its relationship to the various organizational types, as part of the

author's fourth objective. The study as it stands is, however, an important one, from the practical as well as the theoretical angle. Facts are clearly presented, with interpretative tables and diagrams, and the book is very readable. It is a welcome addition to the literature in a field in which little has been done heretofore, and it offers an excellent beginning from which more comprehensive analyses may stem. The book will without question be of interest to library administrators and library school faculties and students, as well as to children's librarians and other executives in this particular field.

AGATHA L. SHEA

Chicago Public Library

Focus on Learning: Motion Pictures in the School. By CHARLES F. HOBAN JR. Washington: American Council on Education, 1942. Pp. xiii+172. \$2.00.

All librarians awakening to the possibilities of the motion picture as a medium of communication for which they wish to assume some responsibility will find the basic philosophy of the value of motion pictures in education in this volume, which is the final report on the five-year study of the Committee on Motion Pictures in Education of the American Council on Education.

The Committee set about to define the functions of motion pictures in general education and to facilitate the development of general education through the use of motion pictures. In his report the Director has interpreted data gathered by the Project in terms of both these objectives. The role of motion pictures in general education has been discussed from the viewpoint of the classroom teacher, so that general education may be improved through the effective use of motion pictures in the curriculum.

Other publications of the Committee which should be read in connection with this summary report are: *A School Uses Motion Pictures*; *Films on War and American Policy*; *Projecting Motion Pictures in the Classroom*; *Motion Pictures in the Modern Curriculum: A Report on the Use of Films in the Santa Barbara Schools*; *Students Make Motion Pictures: A Report on Film Production in the Denver Schools*; *The Other Americas through Films and Records*; and *Select- ed Educational Motion Pictures: A Descriptive Encyclopedia*.

Two useful appendixes of the volume are "Film Sources and How To Use Them" and "Film Rating Forms."

Chapters on "Student Reactions" and "Films in the Curriculum" will be of special value to teachers and school librarians who are faced with the problem of selection, evaluation, and the best possible classroom use of the film. In discussing the films used for auditorium programs, the author points out that such films may serve the same function as library browsing and home reading in extending the student's interests and background.

"To be successfully used, films should have a definite and functional relation to other materials and activities within the unit. They should neither be isolated within this series of experiences nor tacked on as an appendage." In this statement on the integration of film use can be found the chief reason for the librarian's assuming a place in the motion-picture program. The film is only one of many important materials of instruction and information, and its successful use can be determined by relating it to other materials—books, magazines, and radio programs. The librarian should be the person best able to integrate all these instruments of education. Librarians who have observed the use made of motion pictures in the Army, Navy, and civilian training programs in wartime will want to understand the role of motion pictures in education and be ready to use them to the greatest advantage in peacetime.

MARGUERITE KIRK

Board of Education
Newark, New Jersey

The Patients' Library: A Guide Book for Volunteer Hospital Library Service. By MARY FRANK MASON. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1942. Pp. 111. \$1.00.

This neat little guidebook for volunteers in hospital library service, with its attractive gray and green cover, deserves attention, and that not only because it was compiled by the director of volunteers. Volunteers have done it before, though not so elaborately. There have been the strict rules of Inez Baylis for running her library service in Montreal hospitals on a completely volunteer basis and the brief, explicit regulations of the General and Strong Memorial Hospitals in Rochester, New York, for their untrained aides. In Rochester the volunteers soon found the assistance of a professional, Julia Sauer, who in turn issued an excellent little manual for volunteer hospital librarians, both untrained and inexperienced. Miss

Elizabeth Pomeroy, of the Veterans' Administration, another professional, has also contributed to the manuals in this field with her fifteen-page pamphlet, *ABC's for Hospital Librarians*. This, to be sure, is not for volunteers, but for "librarians trained in library science." Finally, there is a recent booklet put out by the U.S.O.C.D. on *Volunteers in Library Service*, including hospitals. And in this, on page 7, one reads a significant sentence: "Their [i.e., the volunteers'] work should be under the supervision of a member of the professional library staff."

Mrs. Mason's 111-page book is the most ambitious of any of these publications, whether by trained or by untrained worker, and she is to be commended for her energy and enterprise. If anyone were to wonder why this handbook, combining much of the material of the other booklets, has not been prepared by a hospital librarian, with perhaps a firmer grasp of library procedures, a wider experience of different types of hospital libraries, and a more balanced understanding of the place of the volunteer in the picture, she has only to turn to page 11 and read these words: "the library profession has been slow in placing a trained personnel in this particular field." If Mrs. Mason only knew, this is not the half of it. If she had said nothing else of value, that statement should give this book a hearing. It is an indictment of the profession, a deserved one, from A.L.A. down.

But now for the *Guide Book* itself. How does it stack up with others and with what one would like to see? Its assets are: first of all, its very existence; second, its attractive format—Mr. Wilson has done well by the author; third, Mrs. Mason's pleasing way of expressing herself, her knack of finding agreeable word and phrase; fourth, the fact that the author is an enthusiastic convert to the work. Add the fact that for many years she has been the director of the Central Bureau for Hospital Libraries of the New York Junior League, with its cohorts of volunteer workers, and has been in touch with such librarians as Jennie Flexner, of the New York Public Library, and Julia Sauer, to whom the book is dedicated, and you realize why the book was published.

To consider, now, the liabilities of the book, it seems to me that the basic weakness is her failure to establish a good working relationship between volunteers and the public library system. Nowhere does she define the place of the volunteer in relation to the professional or designate the duties of each. Having given her volun-

teers the run of a practically unfenced field, she probably should not be expected even to suggest the advisability of their working closely with the nearest organized library. That would seem to be an obvious and sensible arrangement, but it has been quite overlooked by the author. This omission may be due to the limitation of her experience to one volunteer organization in a large metropolitan center. However, it is unfortunate, as most of the groups using this book will doubtless be working in smaller communities where it is easier and highly desirable to dovetail the efforts of two such institutions as the public library and the hospital. The interdependence of the volunteer and the professional cannot be stressed too much. They need each other.

There is not space here to discuss in detail the author's handling of procedures. But, briefly, my feeling is that the forty-eight pages devoted to these points are either too few, if no trained person is to check and explain, or too many, if there is a trained supervisor on the job. In either case there is some confusion and repetition.

In the last quarter of this guide, devoted to "The Book," the author is at her best; her facile comments are fresh and crisp. However, if one checks and rechecks, one finds, for instance, that of the sixty-odd titles recommended here and there throughout the text, more than half would probably be sitting on the shelves most of the time. More suggestions are needed for the everyday book, not the exceptional one. That list of one hundred books compiled as a model library by Mildred Schumacher, showing the relative number of the different kinds of fiction and nonfiction necessary, would have been vastly more helpful to the volunteer.

However, that is a matter that can be remedied and is not so important as, for instance, the following unsupported statement: "It is understood that about 10 per cent of hospital patients require the special application of bibliography" (p. 77). Mrs. Mason then goes on to say that the volunteer will therefore be concerned mainly with the 90 per cent of normal-case patients. That is to me a surprising statement, and I don't see how it could be arrived at. I find it untenable. So far as I know, there are no existing data by which it can be proved. But even if it could be proved, how is the volunteer to know which patients constitute that 10 per cent—which should be served by the trained and which by the untrained?

It is such statements as this, tossed off with

a disarming phrase as the author speeds her pen to touch now on "pathological points" and again on "puzzled psychiatrists," that make the old professionals wonder a bit about this problem child, *The Volunteer*. However, there are some reassuring signs of wholesome doubt on the author's part as to the completeness of the armor of the volunteer hospital librarian, as indicated in her words on page 68. She says:

Perhaps the largest administrative problem on the horizon, and one for which no satisfactory solution has yet been found, is that of transmitting to the volunteer necessary information about the patient who requires special book service—the patient who is depressed, dreading an operation, has passed a restless night and wants a spiritual pick-up. How is one to know?

And one might add, How, indeed? It would be even more reassuring if the rest of the paragraph did not indicate a wish to believe in the possibility of some neat device, some trick, some quick twist in administrative procedure that would tell all. To most it must seem strange even to speak of this as an administrative problem. Certainly, this is a problem to be solved only by long and conscientious study on the part of one who is willing to devote her energies for years to observing the reading needs of patients, to knowing the contents of books, and to putting the two together. There is in the hospital librarian's "materia libraria" no bibliostethoscope, no mechanical injections to determine literary allergies, no cardiograph to record emotional tone. Nor is there any clear line of demarcation between the patients who need much help and those who need little. It is a question of degree. Sometimes it depends upon the disease, but more often upon the personality. Such matters as these may well puzzle the volunteer.

The possibilities of this work with sick human beings and the responsibility of the worker are tremendous; much could be said about both. But until more concrete evidence can be produced from case studies, most of what is said must remain inconclusive—a point which puts the job right back in the professional's lap.

As a final summing-up, I think we might say that in the past we have had guidance as unerring as the multiplication table and as devoid of charm, and that now we have charm, but with next to no guidance. Who, then, will come into the wilderness and save us with a happy combination of both?

PERRIE JONES

St. Paul Public Library

Catholic Subject Headings: A List Designed for Use with Library of Congress Subject Headings or the Sears List of Subject Headings for Small Libraries. Edited by OLIVER L. KAPNER. Collegeville, Minn.: St. John's Abbey Press, 1942. Pp. xi+256.

Analyzing this list of subject headings, Victor A. Schaefer, chief of the Preparations Division, Catholic University of America, Washington, D.C., has established that the list contains approximately twenty-three hundred headings, of which fewer than seventy-five are not already to be found in some form in the *Library of Congress List of Subject Headings* (Washington, 1928) and its supplements. The outstanding peculiarities of the Catholic list may be stated as follows:

1. With the exception of those drawn from the L.C. list, the definitions attached occasionally to subject headings suffer from being of an abstract or theoretical character instead of specifications of the scope of the terms in respect to the grouping of books in subject cataloging.

2. The list is weighted with names of books of the Bible and the obvious cross-references.

3. Where L.C. uses "Theology, doctrinal," the Catholic list uses "Dogmatic theology"; similarly, instead of "Theology, pastoral," the Catholic list uses "Pastoral theology." To the reviewer the more desirable forms in this case, for Catholic libraries in general, are those of the L.C. list, because the average Catholic is unfamiliar with the meaning and scope of the terms employed by the Catholic list and because the L.C. headings bring the material into a juxtaposition favorable to a rapid and more complete service to the average reader who has not specialized in the subject.

4. The Catholic list properly uses "Eucharist" in place of the L.C. heading "Lord's Supper"; and "Moral theology" (preferably, "Theology, moral") instead of the L.C. heading "Christian ethics." In these cases the L.C. headings are altogether foreign to the average Catholic, and their employment in a Catholic library might seriously impede effective service. The Catholic list, nevertheless, retains the corresponding L.C. headings for material on the same subjects by non-Catholic authors. Likewise, where the Catholic list reserves the heading "Apologetics" for material by Catholic authors, it uses "Christianity—evidences" for the same class of material by non-Catholic authors. This practice will normally give rise to confusion and loss of effective control on the part of the catalog users, on account of the separation

of identical subject matter under synonymous headings and the failure of catalog users to notice the occasional explanatory notes introducing a group of entries under a given subject. A more effective arrangement is to put both Catholic and non-Catholic material under the same subject heading and to distinguish by means of the subdivision: "Non-Catholic authors."

5. The Catholic list omits a number of subject subdivisions found in the L.C. list under the Catholic church, such as "Catholic church—apologetical works"; "Catholic church—catechisms and creeds"; "Catholic church—clergy"; etc. See references are made to the corresponding general subject heading: "Apologetics"; "Catechisms"; "Clergy"; etc. This practice seems correct for the average Catholic library. But is not the compiler of the Catholic list a bit timid at this point when he retains, for example: "Catholic church—biography," besides "Christian biography"; "Catholic church—charities," besides "Church charities"; "Catholic church—education," besides "Church and education"; "Catholic church—government," besides "Church polity"; "Catholic church—history," besides "Church history"; etc.?

6. The treatment of the Eastern churches, rites, and liturgies is inadequate in scope and inaccurate in detail.

7. There appear in the Catholic list forms which will puzzle the professional cataloger. For example, main-entry forms, such as "Catholic church. Canons, decretals, etc." and "Catholic church. Treaties, etc.," which are never employed as subject-heading forms, are translated into subject-heading forms for Catholic libraries as follows: "Canons, decretals, etc.," and "Papacy, treaties, etc." The A.L.A. code is not mentioned anywhere, but profound indebtedness is acknowledged to the Vatican code, which, of course, carries a chapter on the preparation of subject headings. However, when it comes to headings ordinarily governed by the norms and rules for the main entry, the Catholic list ignores all codes. Inspired by the Vatican library's practice of omitting the name "Catholic church," as corporate author, from the main entries for liturgical books, collections of canon law, and the official publications of the Holy See, the compiler of the Catholic list endeavors to bring to American Catholic libraries the same economies in so far as subject headings are concerned. Unhappily, he has neglected to set forth the rules which must govern such a plan of operation. The idea may be attractive at first to

some Catholic libraries, but in practice it can appeal only to the short-sighted. The disadvantages, too numerous to outline here, are compelling enough.

Catholic Subject Headings cannot be recommended because the ineptitude of the independent contributions betrays a lack of understanding of and familiarity with certain elementary and fundamental aspects of cataloging technique. The L.C. list contains more sound and reliable subject headings suitable to the needs of Catholic libraries than the Catholic list. The few changes and additions required by Catholic libraries may be made in the L.C. list itself with greater convenience than by the employment of a separate list for Catholic libraries.

COLMAN J. FARRELL

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A Cataloging Manual for Law Libraries. By ELSIE BASSET. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1942. Pp. 365. \$5.00.

An unflinching criterion of good librarianship is interest in cataloging and classification. For several years librarians have watched a steady stream of articles, speeches, pamphlets, experiments, and books relating to the problems of this field issuing from the Columbia University Law Library. The most recent product, by Elsie Basset, is what law librarians have been awaiting and expecting for some time. And it is not a disappointment. Making its appearance at the height of A.L.A. and Library of Congress interest in the fundamental problems of cataloging, it furnishes to law librarians their first comprehensive and practical guide for the indexing of materials in their libraries.

In fact, the volume might well have been entitled *An Indexing Manual for Law Libraries*, because its chapters are not limited in scope to cataloging techniques. The principles of classification theory are presented, and the outstanding law library classification schemes are carefully described. Simple classification schedules for treatises, conflict of laws, and foreign law are set out in Appendixes V, VI, and VII.

The volume commences in general fashion, describing briefly the major segments of the usual law book collection and the objectives of the cataloger's office. Because the bulk of any law library can be represented by printed cards, the features of Library of Congress card use and

card ordering initiate the reader to detail. Then follow directions for the production of the various types of cards contained in the catalog, together with suggestions for simplified cataloging. The latter will appeal to the cataloger of small law library collections, of which there are many. Throughout the volume are footnote references to the standard cataloging guides, such as Mann, Fellows, and Akers. Periodicals, society publications, government publications, statutes, and reports all receive separate treatment.

A most valuable chapter is devoted to subject headings. With the seventy-six pages of topic and form headings contained in Appendices I, II, and III, this portion of the volume will, in itself, make the *Manual* indispensable to law librarians. The volume is completed by several selected bibliographies, which lead the cataloger to background materials and other useful indexing tools in both general and legal fields. The final seventy-five pages are devoted to numerous examples of cards demonstrating the problems described in the text, reproduced by photolithography from typewritten cards.

This volume, together with Price's *A Catalog for a Law Library of 15,000 Volumes*, also published in 1942, will make the task of law catalogers in libraries, both large and small, immeasurably easier. It is a genuine pleasure to report a contribution such as this.

OSCAR C. ORMAN

Washington University

Library Handbook, Olin Memorial Library, Wesleyan University. Compiled by FREMONT RIDER. 4th ed. Middletown, Conn., 1942. Pp. 93.

A library handbook should be judged primarily in terms of the purposes of its compilers. Mr. Rider and members of his staff have tried to prepare a library guide that will help both students and faculty members who are not acquainted with the Wesleyan library and that students may find useful as they progress through their college work. Mr. Rider is not writing to impress outsiders. He keeps his eye on members of the Wesleyan community.

The manual proceeds logically from a very clear description of the building, through the rules which govern its use, to general directions on how to find books in the library. This much is for the beginner. Following are more detailed

directions for the student to use after he has begun to need more help. Thus the beginner is not confused by directions which he does not need, and the detailed bibliographic instructions are kept as a unit.

The section on "Reference Books on Special Subjects" is the most useful brief introduction the reviewer has seen. Minor and out-of-date tools which are usually listed in manuals are omitted in Dr. Pauli's list. His annotations are clear.

The last part of the manual, "Getting the Most Out of Books" and "A History of the Library," can be ignored by the student, and no harm done, if his interests happen not to lie in these directions. When college Seniors begin to think about leaving their Alma Mater and begin to realize what a fine place she is, their interests often lead them to such things as a chronological list of endowments, funds, gifts, and special collections in the library. Very properly, this is the last part of the manual—except the Index, which is almost unnecessary for this book.

The compiler invites suggestions for improvements to be made in future editions. The following list might be considered.

The one example of a subject heading in the section on the library's catalog seems to be somewhat unfortunately chosen (p. 33). If a general heading like "Sociology" is to be used, the book to which it refers should be a general book on sociology, not a rather specialized one like *Sociology of Law*. If a student thinks about the example given, he might wonder about how useful subject headings will be to him.

The section on "Government Publications" does not make clear just how documents are used. Since they are classified and cataloged, why does the student need to use the special indexes mentioned? In what respect is the catalog inadequate as a guide to documents? Librarians, of course, know the answer, but the student might be confused by the presentation given.

The section on interlibrary loans, "If the Book You Want Is Not in the Library" (p. 45), would seem to be the logical place to present a more detailed description of what the microfilming process is and how it can be used. I find no reference to microfilming elsewhere in the manual, and it is not listed in the Index.

Some may, perhaps, object to the lack of the animated cartoon or other clever devices for clarifying descriptions, but this reviewer does not. Mr. Rider has complimented Wesleyan

students by assuming that they are capable of learning from the printed word.

RALPH E. ELLSWORTH

University of Colorado

"Union List of Microfilms: Supplement 1 (1942)." Compiled by the COMMITTEE ON MICROPHOTOGRAPHY OF THE PHILADELPHIA BIBLIOGRAPHICAL CENTER AND UNION LIBRARY CATALOGUE. Philadelphia: Philadelphia Bibliographical Center and Union Library Catalogue, 1943. Pp. xii + 244. \$3.00. (Mimeographed.)

"After all, the *Union List of Microfilms* is a cooperative effort of listing the films available in the United States and Canada, and not an attempt at a bibliography of films." Clearly, the word "available" here should mean "available for loan or purchase." If "available" means "existing," then the meaning merges somewhat with the meaning of the word "bibliography" as used in the foregoing quotation from the Foreword to this "Supplement."

As in the main volume (reviewed in the *Library Quarterly*, XII [1942], 875), we find that the "Supplement" still indicates that films listed are negatives or positives or that the owners of films failed to indicate which they were. Hence one doesn't know whether the film is available and must write to the owner (the symbol of whose library is given in the entry). One must ask also for the cost of a copy, if copies are available, or for permission to borrow the original film. The feasibility of lending microfilms is, of course, extremely questionable.

The compilers of the *Union List of Micro-*

films should, in the opinion of this reviewer, insist upon complete information about films or omit them from the list. Blank forms showing the items of information necessary might well be supplied to the owners of films to be listed, thereby eliciting all-important information. Otherwise, one simply has what more nearly approaches a bibliography of films or list of existing films rather than a list of films available for loan or purchase at stipulated prices. And, in this connection, it might be emphasized that a highly desirable piece of information about any film is the name of the laboratory which made it; this information will continue to be important until a plan for standardization is evolved, perhaps by the National Bureau of Standards. Symbols can then indicate the exact quality of any film, and such symbols should be a part of the description of the film.

It is important to notice that the film holdings of the University of Chicago Libraries and the Newberry Library are included in this Supplement, as are the films photographed in England for the Library of Congress under the War Emergency Program.

The "Supplement" contains approximately three thousand entries; the main volume about five thousand. The bibliographical descriptions are better than in the main volume, although, as indicated above, they are still incomplete. Ninety-one institutions supplied lists of their holdings for the "Supplement"; one hundred and two for the main volume. Obviously, therefore, these union lists are the quickest means of ascertaining whether some eight thousand items have been filmed.

JOE HARE

*Mary Reed Library
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BOOKS RECEIVED

- ABC's for Hospital Librarians.* By ELIZABETH POMEROY. Chicago: American Library Association, 1943. Pp. 18. \$0.25.
- American Labor Publications in the Library: Some Special Problems.* By ELMER M. GRIEDER. (Reprinted from *Special Libraries*, February, 1943.) Pp. 6. \$0.10.
- Annual Report of the Librarian of Congress for the Fiscal Year Ending June 30, 1942.* Washington, 1943. Pp. 258.
- Carnegie Corporation and College Libraries, 1938-1943.* By THOMAS R. BARCUS. New York: Carnegie Corporation of New York, 1943. Pp. 59.
- Cash Allowances for the Families and Dependents of Soldiers, Sailors, and Marines: An Explanation, with Tables and Examples, of the Servicemen's Dependents Allowance Act.* By OTTO E. PFEIFFENBERGER. New York: William Frederick Press, 1943. Pp. 64. \$0.50. Distributed by Pamphlet Distributing Co., 313 West Thirty-fifth St., New York City.
- Catalog of Reprints in Series.* Compiled by ROBERT M. ORTON. 3d ed. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1943. Pp. 302. \$3.50.
- The Chicago Public Library: Origins and Backgrounds.* By GWLADYS SPENCER. ("University of Chicago Studies in Library Science.") Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1943. Pp. xvii+473. \$4.50.
- Classification and Compensation Plans for Non-academic Positions in the University of California.* By BOYNTON S. KAISER. Berkeley: Bureau of Public Administration, University of California, 1942. Pp. 114.
- Course for the Storyteller; An Outline.* By RUTH BUDD GALBRAITH. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1943. Pp. 15. \$0.35 (additional copies, \$0.10 each).
- "Current Aspects of Records Administration." By PHILIP C. BROOKS, WILLARD F. MCCORMICK, ROBERT H. BAHMER, and HARRY VENNEMAN. ("Records Administration Circulars," No. 2.) Washington: National Archives, 1943. Pp. 19. (Mimeographed.)
- Democracy by Discussion.* By EMORY S. BOGARDUS. Washington: American Council on Public Affairs, 1942. Pp. vi+59. \$1.00.
- Dictionary of Science and Technology in English-French-German-Spanish.* By MAXIM NEWMARK. New York: Philosophical Library, 1943. Pp. viii+386. \$6.00.
- Education for Freedom.* By ROBERT MAYNARD HUTCHINS. ("Edward Douglass White Lectures on Citizenship.") Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press, 1943. Pp. ix+108. \$1.50.
- Eighth Annual Report of the Archivist of the United States for the Fiscal Year Ending June 30, 1942.* ("National Archives Publications," No. 23.) Washington: Government Printing Office, 1943. Pp. vii+92. Free on application to the Division of Information and Publications, The National Archives.
- An Exhibition of Manuscripts and Printed Books at the University of Texas, October 1-30, 1942: Alfred, Lord Tennyson, 1809-1892.* By FANNIE E. RATCHFORD. Pp. 20. \$0.50.
- The Fifth Seal.* By MARK ALDANOV, translated by NICHOLAS WREDEN. New York: Charles Scribner Sons, 1943. Pp. vi+482. \$3.00.
- The Folger Shakespeare Memorial Library: A Report on Progress, 1931-1941.* By JOSEPH QUINCY ADAMS. Published for the Trustees of Amherst College, 1942. Pp. 61.
- Force and Freedom: Reflections on History.* By JACOB BURCKHARDT, edited by JAMES HASTINGS NICHOLS. New York: Pantheon Books, Inc., 1943. Pp. 382. \$3.50.
- The Forty-second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II: The Library in General Education.* Edited by NELSON B. HENRY. Chicago, 1943. Pp. xiv+383+xlii. \$2.25. Distributed by the Department of Education, University of Chicago.
- "The General Fund Surplus Problem in California." By DOROTHY C. TOMPKINS. ("1943 Legislative Problems," No. 3.) Berkeley: Bureau of Public Administration, University of California, 1943. Pp. 21. \$0.40. (Mimeographed.)
- Handbook on Education and the War: Based on Proceedings of the National Institute on Education and the War, Sponsored by the U.S. Office of Education Wartime Commission, at American University, Washington, D.C., August 28-31, 1942.* Washington: Government Printing Office, 1943. Pp. xv+344. \$0.55.
- "Income Tax Collection Plans." By DOROTHY CAMPBELL TOMPKINS. ("War Bibliographies," No. 5.) Berkeley: Bureau of Public Administration, University of California, 1943. Pp. 8. \$0.35. (Mimeographed.)
- Latin for Americans, Second Book.* By B. L. ULLMAN and NORMAN E. HENRY. ("Macmillan Classical Series.") New York: Macmillan Co., 1942. Pp. x+462+liv. \$2.40.
- Lee's Lieutenants: A Study in Command, Vol. II: Cedar Mountain to Chancellorsville.* By DOUGLAS SOUTHALL FREEMAN. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1943. Pp. xlv+760. \$5.00.
- Life after Death.* By GUSTAV THEODOR FECHNER. New York: Pantheon Books, Inc., 1943. Pp. 124. \$1.50.
- The Mind and Faith of Justice Holmes: His Speeches,*

- Essays, Letters, and Judicial Opinions.* Selected and Edited with Introduction and Commentary by MAX LERNER. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1943. Pp. 1+464. \$4.00.
- National Survey of the Higher Education of Negroes, Vol. III: Intensive Study of Selected Colleges for Negroes.* By LLOYD E. BLAUCH and MARTIN D. JENKINS. (U.S. Office of Education, Misc. No. 6.) Washington: Government Printing Office, 1942. Pp. vi+125. \$0.30.
- Of Books and Men.* By JOSEPH J. REILLY. New York: Julian Messner, Inc., 1942. Pp. ix+273. \$2.50.
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- "Official War Publications," Vol. V. By JEROME K. WILCOX. Berkeley: Bureau of Public Administration, University of California, 1943. Pp. 252. \$1.75. (Mimeographed.)
- Pacific Northwest Resources.* By JOHN B. APPLETON. ("Know Your Northwest Series.") Portland, Ore.: Northwest Regional Council, 1943. Pp. iii+130. \$1.00.
- Papermaking: The History and Technique of an Ancient Craft.* By DARD HUNTER. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1943. Pp. xv+398+xiii. \$4.50.
- Qualifications of Public Librarians in the Middle West: A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate Library School in Candidacy for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy, 1939.* By ROBERT S. ALVAREZ. Chicago, 1943. Pp. viii+192. \$2.50. (Lithoprinted.) Copies may be obtained from the author, Box 673, Bridgeport, Conn.
- Records Administration in the Construction Organization of the Emergency Fleet Corporation.* By ROBERT CLAUS. ("National Archives Records Administration Circulars," No. 4.) March, 1943. Pp. 10.
- The Reference Function of the Library: Papers Presented before the Library Institute at the University of Chicago, June 29 to July 10, 1942.* Edited by PIERCE BUTLER. ("University of Chicago Studies in Library Science.") Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1943. Pp. x+366. \$3.00.
- Review Index: A Quarterly Guide to Professional Reviews.* Published by Follett Book Co., 1255 South Wabash Avenue, Chicago. \$5.00 per year.
- The Rise and Fall of the House of Ullstein.* By HERMAN ULLSTEIN. New York: Simon & Schuster, 1943. Pp. 308. \$3.00.
- "Second Report of the Special Committee on Centralized Technical Processes and Bookbuying, Colorado College and Head Librarians Conference." February, 1943. Available for distribution from James G. Hodgson, Colorado State College Library, Boulder, Colorado.
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- Subject Headings Used in the Dictionary Catalogs of the Library of Congress: Cumulated Supplements to the 4th Edition, January 1941—March 1943.* New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1943. Pp. 65.
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